

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 10, 1881.

The Week.

THE result of the elections is, on the whole, what most people expected. Not only is it "an off-year," but the proverbial apathy of an off-year has been aggravated by the absorption of the public mind during the past summer in the late President's illness and by the prevailing suspense about the course of the new Administration. The vote has been very light everywhere, every party excepting John Kelly's bringing but a small proportion of its forces to the polls. Kelly's "cohorts," however, seem to hold their own in all weathers and in all years, which is the more surprising as he has now no offices to reward them with, and there was really more coal and flour to be got by joining one of the rival "halls." The controversy between him and the *Herald* continues to be carried on with furious bitterness, but that paper does not inflict on him the extreme editorial penalty of "ordering his name out of the paper." This retribution has, however, apparently overtaken Mr. W. W. Astor, along with other misfortunes, for he is only spoken of as "the Republican candidate," while his opponent's name is given in full. Scenes like these are well calculated to shake the stoutest nerves. Next to the permanence of Kelly's strength, the most remarkable feature of the election in this city was the defeat of two of the young men of wealth who made their debut in political life by becoming slaves of the Machine. They and all like them have now been made aware that though the Machine can give nominations, it cannot always make the nomination valuable, and that to succeed "inside politics" it is also necessary to stand well with the voters outside politics.

The report of the Commissioner of Pensions, only an abstract of which is before us, will remind the people very forcibly of the foolish demagoguery which inflicted upon the country the Arrears-of-Pensions Act. Before the passage of that act the pension roll and the sum necessary for the payment of pensions were slowly going down. When the Arrears Bill was under discussion, its advocates in their speeches in Congress assured the public that the total amount required to satisfy all claims for arrears would certainly not exceed thirty millions and might fall below twenty-five. At the Treasury Department it was estimated that the required amount would be all of one hundred and fifty millions. The Commissioner of Pensions thought that it would run up to three hundred millions; but after the first half-year's practical experience of the operation of the act he amended his estimate to the effect that the public expenditure directly and indirectly caused by it in the shape of arrears proper, of a rapid increase in the number of new pension claims, honest and fraudulent, stimulated by the larger prizes to be obtained, and of the consequent increase of

the pension roll involving arrears and annual payments, would in the course of years reach a total of about six hundred millions. We fear this estimate is not very far from the truth. At present the annual expenditures of the Pension Office, as the Commissioner shows, have run up from twenty-nine millions, the sum required before the passage of the Arrears Act, to \$49,723,967. The amount paid out during the year as "first payments" to new pensioners is reported as \$23,628,177—a large sum, considering the fact that the civil war closed sixteen years ago.

Treasurer Gilfillan's report is probably the most extraordinary document ever presented to a political community. There is a surplus revenue this year of over \$100,000,000, and the revenue increased \$27,000,000 over that of last year. Over \$90,000,000 was spent in reducing the public debt. The stock of gold and silver in the Treasury has risen to \$269,000,000, the amount of gold having increased over \$39,000,000 since last year, and that of silver over \$16,000,000. Putting aside the greenbacks, the demand liabilities of the Treasury fall below its assets by over \$146,000,000. The fund for the redemption of the greenbacks is kept at about 40 per cent. of their total amount, which is \$362,539 65. No public financier has ever had such a story to tell. No other nation ever got its finances into such a comfortable condition except by robbery. To the friends of the tariff, however, there is something awful in it. The Protectionists have a philosophy of society, just as the slaveholders had one, which makes a high tariff one of the normal wants of each political community, just as clothes are one of the normal wants of the civilized man. This philosophy has never, since it triumphed in 1861, had to face the public on its own merits. It has always had behind it, as the pro-slavery philosophy had, a good backing in the shape of seeming political necessity, as well as undoubted pecuniary profits for a large class. But the enormous rise of the revenue and the near approach of the disappearance of the debt will speedily compel the tariff men to make good their claims without the aid of seeming necessity. They will have to show the country that it ought to submit to be taxed for their benefit simply and solely without any mixture in it of political need. This will be a terrible job. They will have to bring to the task all the similes and allegories they have in store, and will have, moreover, to abandon that old story about helping infant manufactures. The fondest parents are apt to get tired of spending money on stretching apparatus for an infant who cannot show that in ten years he has added one genuine inch to his stature.

The public debt was diminished during the month of October \$13,321,458, which makes the decrease since June 30—the beginning of the current fiscal year—\$55,064,345, or at the rate of \$165,000,000 per year. The statement of the assets and liabilities of the Treasury

shows that the Treasury at the end of October owned \$167,785,609 gold coin and bullion, against \$169,122,024 at the beginning of the month; that the amount of silver owned at the end of the month was \$37,146,870, against \$42,447,784 at the beginning. It is notable that at the end of October there were outstanding \$66,327,670 silver certificates, against a total of standard silver dollars in the Treasury of \$66,576,378, so that the limit of the issue of silver certificates on the present stock of silver dollars has about been reached.

Notwithstanding the arrival of \$1,490,000 foreign gold and the disbursement by the Treasury of about \$3,000,000 of November interest, the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced during the week \$1,600,000, or to \$3,104,675. The foreign-specie arrivals since August 1 have been \$22,832,941, against \$45,325,652 a year ago. The rates for foreign exchange do not warrant fresh gold imports, but if the declining tendency of the prices of breadstuffs continues, it will not be long before this class of exports will furnish exchange enough to lower rates once more to the gold-importing point. There has been no advance in the London rate for money. The Paris settlements from which trouble was apprehended have passed without causing any serious disturbance, and there are rather more securities going to Europe than are coming back from there. The general trade of the country continues very large, and the indications are that it is profitable. The tonnage of the railroads was never larger than at present. No further steps have been openly taken towards a settlement of the differences between the trunk lines, but whether these are formally settled or not, rates during the winter months promise to be considerably higher than now, although without a formal agreement between the trunk lines there is no guarantee of a long continuance of profitable rates. Prices advanced during the week at the Stock Exchange, where business ran almost entirely on specialties, each of which is controlled by a clique.

The *Public* of last week had an important article on "Prices since Resumption." Tables of comparative prices of forty-three articles of commerce, being those of most common use, and constituting three-fourths of all the traffic of the country, are given for the years 1878, 1879, 1880, and 1881. Assuming that the prices of the year 1860 represented the normal standard or true par of exchange between commodities and gold, and representing this condition by the figure 100, the *Public* finds that average prices on the first of November, 1878, were at 81.40, or about nineteen per cent. below the nominal standard; that in 1879 they were at 98.93, in 1880, at 103.08, and at the present time (November, 1881) at 111.02. Going back to the years before and after the panic of 1873, the *Public* finds the following range of average prices as compared with the standard of 100, gold values being used in all cases:

1866	131.00	1872	122.00
1867	138.00	1873	113.00
1868	140.00	1874	115.00
1869	116.00	1875	107.00
1870	118.00	1876	100.00
1871	120.00		

Making some allowance for imperfect data, these figures are believed by the *Public* to be approximately correct, and they seem to tally with the observed fluctuations of trade. The tables would be improved by adding to the list of prices examined those of labor, real estate, and transportation. Their value consists in the fact that a marked and continued rise of general prices above the normal standard is always the forerunner of a commercial crisis. It appears that prices anterior to the crisis of 1873 reached the maximum of 140.00 in the year 1868, and that they were considerably above 100 for a period of ten years before 1873, although in the last-mentioned year they were only two per cent. above the present average.

The only question presented to Judge Cox for decision by the argument now going on in the *Star-route* cases is, whether a conspiracy to defraud is an "infamous crime," in the technical sense of the word. The Constitution requires that the prosecution of "a capital or otherwise infamous crime" shall be by "presentment or indictment of a grand jury," except in certain specified cases. Of course, in the ordinary sense of the word the crime is infamous; but it by no means follows that it is so as a matter of law. The reason why the cases were begun by information was that the statute of limitations barred an indictment. There is great force in Mr. Bliss's suggestion to the court that if the question involved appears to it to be doubtful, the information ought to be sustained and the question carried up. It should be observed, too, that all the talk about proceedings by information being despotic and anti-American is absurd. If the framers of the Constitution had meant to prevent all crimes from being tried by information, they would have said so in so many words. "Liberty" is in just as much danger from the trial of a non-infamous crime without the intervention of a grand jury as of an infamous one. In fact, it would probably not hurt Liberty a bit if all prosecutions were begun in this way.

We have not hitherto advanced any private theory of our own in regard to the speculation in Confederate bonds, simply for the reason that we have been so much interested in watching the development of theories on the subject by our contemporaries. These have, as our readers are aware, been very numerous. The first theory advanced was that the speculation was based upon the effect which the Mahone movement in Virginia was likely to have upon the financial policy of the Republicans. The process by which a fondness for repudiation in Virginia was going to lead to a desire to pay a debt the assumption of which is prohibited by the Constitution, was never very clear to us. It was advanced by the *World* with that apparent seriousness which it so often makes use of for the purpose of disguising its overflowing humor; but the chance of recovery by the means suggested in the *World* seems now to be at least as likely to be good

as any which has made its appearance since, and it deserves to be taken into consideration among the other theories. The second was the deposit theory, which in its original form bore a curiously close resemblance to the deposit theory of the American heir to vast estates in England. As we pointed out the other day, the deposit which awaits the arrival of the American heir is always lying in the Bank of England, and its payment is in some way dependent upon an opinion of the Lord Chancellor which can never be found in the regular series of reports. In exactly the same way these Confederate deposits were found to be in the Bank of England, and Lord Hatherley, who was Lord Chancellor a few years ago, was stated to have delivered an opinion. These statements were fortified by a reference to a correspondence between the State Department and the British Government, in which the United States laid claim to these deposits, but was driven off because, in order to prove its title, it would have to admit the legal existence of the Confederate Government and apply for these funds as its "executor," which of course Mr. Fish would not do for any money. There was in this theory a certain vagueness as to the amount of money in the Bank of England to the credit of the holders of Confederate bonds, but it was generally conceded that it was either \$800,000 or else \$17,000,000, and whichever it was, it clearly did not belong to the Bank.

General Marcus Wright, however, who has long been charged with the custody of the Confederate archives, pronounces wholly baseless the belief that there is a Confederate deposit somewhere in England which has produced the recent speculation in Confederate bonds. Indeed, there seems to be little or no question that the whole affair is a sort of experiment on public credulity made either by one stock operator or by a syndicate. If by eagerly offering a dollar for a \$1,000 bond the speculator can persuade outsiders to give two dollars a piece for his stock of them, he has of course made one of the little strokes which are tried successfully or unsuccessfully in Wall street every day. It is the old mock auction in a new form. The belief that the Confederacy left treasure hidden somewhere in Europe will probably survive, however, for fifty years, and reappear every now and then in some sort of "flurry." It is like the belief in Captain Kidd's treasures and in the unclaimed English estates belonging to American men. Such beliefs, indeed, are survivals of the olden time, when there were no banks, and people buried their savings, and are among the most ancient and poetic weaknesses of the race.

The Minnesota House of Representatives has passed a bill to adjust the State's railroad-bond debt at fifty cents on a dollar, and if the Senate concurs in an amendment which authorizes the issue of bonds for the purpose at less than five per cent., provided there is a market for them at the reduced rate, the bill will become a law. We should suppose that buyers would be rather shy of the bonds at any rate. Who can say that when they be-

come due the State will not "readjust" them also at fifty cents on a dollar? The holders of the partly repudiated bonds may take the new ones upon the ground that "half a loaf is better than no bread"; but the credit of a great State cannot be maintained by taking a niggardly advantage of the proverb.

There is nothing more interesting in connection with the present struggle between Chili and Peru than the great contributions which have been made through it to public law. This is really not surprising, because there are now at least four existing governments in the country, and, as all jurists know, the amount of public law in any part of the world is directly proportioned to the number of governments in it. First, there is the Government of Don Patricio Lynch, the Chilean admiral, who has declared martial law throughout all the territory of Peru occupied by Chilean troops. Second, there is the Government of Don F. Garcia Calderon, a description of whose authority is best given in his own words in a letter to Admiral Lynch—that he is "occupying without troops" a "zone." The headquarters of the Government of Don Nicholas de Pierola are believed to have been "in the saddle" hitherto, but it is now said that Arequipa, the "earthquake city," has abandoned his fortunes and gone over to Calderon, who will no doubt proceed to occupy it without troops. The fourth Government is that carried on by Mr. Hurlbut, our Minister, by postal communication with the various other governments. Lynch's Government, being based on the Chilean guns, is a military government; Calderon's is a republic, Pierola's a dictatorship, and the Hurlbut Government does not come under any known political head, but is, according to his own account, based on certain principles of international law which would, if applied in good faith by the other governments, furnish a means of settling all their disputes amicably.

With this excellent end in view he has announced it as a principle of the code of international law administered by him that war indemnities must "be either agreed upon by the parties, or determined by disinterested arbitration." This has now been supplemented by a letter from Don F. Garcia Calderon, in which he gives the views of his Government on the subject of martial law. He admits that Admiral Lynch may by martial law prevent his "practising acts of hostility," but insists that all other operations he has still a perfect right to carry on. It follows from this that the Admiral has no right "to take possession of the Treasury," or "to sequester the funds which the Government possesses in the Bank of London," or "to demand the surrender of the offices under my administration." Admiral Lynch, it will be remembered, declared martial law for the purpose among others of stopping the operations of the Treasury, which consisted in the manufacture of paper money. It is obvious that if the Calderon Government's view of the limitations of martial law were correct, he could, by merely keeping the Treasury running, pay any war indemnity the Admiral might ask, while, as the money is worthless, the resulting advantages to Chili would not be

great. Admiral Lynch therefore objects to this theory of martial law, and insists on the old view that martial law means the will of the officer who declares and maintains it. Pierola has not recently manifested any interest in these questions, but is believed to be devoting considerable attention to the view taken by international law of the subject of highway robbery and murder. The latest story from the scene of negotiations is that some publicist is forging documents purporting to come from the Hurlbut Government, for the purpose of giving the impression that the United States is going to intervene. This does not seem at all necessary at present.

The Land Court in Ireland has made its first decision, making a reduction of nearly thirty-three per cent. in the rent of the farm. This will probably still further increase the number of applications from tenants. In fact, they are now coming in so rapidly as to threaten to overwhelm the court with business, and make so much postponement necessary as greatly to diminish the immediate value of the act. It is said to be the policy of the Land League to encourage applications for the very purpose of producing a block and disgusting the tenants with the delay. The Ministry is in the meantime suffering somewhat from the Irish vote in the large English towns, in four or five of which the Conservatives have made heavy gains at the municipal elections. This, however, will not account for all their gains; but there are usually so many local issues in municipal elections that they are not sure indications of the drift of popular sentiment on imperial questions.

The Irish Land League has issued another manifesto, which is more rational and coherent than any which have gone before. It confines itself, *apropos* of the approaching hundredth anniversary of the establishment of Irish legislative independence by Flood and Grattan and the Volunteers, to dwelling, though with the usual heat and extravagance, upon the wrong and damage involved in the administration of Irish affairs mainly by Englishmen and Scotchmen, and in the legislation on Irish affairs by a Parliament made up in the main of Englishmen and Scotchmen. It comes very near hitting the bull's-eye by declaring that if the government of Ireland were what it ought to be, Parnell would be Prime Minister (for Ireland) instead of being in jail. This is not the exact truth, but it comes very near it. If the government were what it ought to be, the highest place in Irish politics would not be reached by persons as reckless, incoherent, and unscrupulous as Parnell, but the person obtaining the position Parnell occupies in popular confidence would be, not Prime Minister, but Irish Secretary. If the League would come down to the region in which rational men live and work, and push this argument in the language of sober business, they would soon bring about a change which would satisfy not only the material but sentimental wants of the Irish people. As long as they rave and rant, and call names like escaped lunatics, they not only close the ears of Englishmen, but justify their deafness in the

eyes of the civilized world. The reductions which the Land Courts are making in the rent are in the meantime filling the landlords and mortgagees of Irish estates with consternation. There are very few encumbered properties which will bear them and leave anything at all for the life-tenant.

Wendell Phillips has, in a letter declining an invitation to go to Ireland to lecture, made a very important contribution to the long-standing controversy about the nature of rent. But we need hardly say that he agrees neither with Ricardo, Mill, Carey, nor any of the other prominent writers on this subject. They all assume that the owner of the land has something to say in fixing the amount of the rent, and that his demand will be influenced in some degree by the producing power of the soil, and the price of produce in the nearest market by the competition of farmers. According to Mr. Phillips, however, the owner has no more to do with the matter than the man in the moon, nor is it affected by competition for the land, or by the price of produce. The tenant fixes the rent himself. "Honest rent is the surplus left after the tenant has lived in comfort—material, intellectual, personal, and social comfort." Under this rule Ireland, Mr. Phillips says, "owes no rent," which is perfectly true. But he might have added that no rent is due under this rule in any country in the world. The tenant must of course decide when he feels comfortable, materially, intellectually, personally, and socially, and no tenant has any surplus left after providing himself with what he thinks necessary for his comfort. The richest land supplies no such surplus, and never will, because, as the ages roll by, people's ideas of comfort expand. Comfort in its large sense abhors a surplus (just as nature abhors a vacuum) if the comfortable man has to pay it to somebody else. No one is ever comfortable enough to have something over for such a very uninteresting person as a landlord. Consequently Mr. Phillips's definition, which is one of his very best, if generally accepted, will render tenants the very important service of reducing the species of property known as the fee-simple of land to a mere claim on the occupier for as much of his money as he does not care to keep for himself. He leaves untouched the very serious question, whether if the land does not supply the tenant with comfort the landlord is not bound to do so out of his own pocket.

In Germany there is evidently much excitement among the "Conservatives" and in Government circles about the elections. The greatness of their disappointment appears more strikingly from the way in which they express it than from the number of seats gained by their opponents. When the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, the organ of the feudal Conservatives and of the stiff old bureaucracy, exclaims that the continued success of the Progressists and Secessionists—that is, of those who seceded from the National Liberal party—means something very much like the end of the world, it is evident that they confess themselves very seriously de-

feated. But the alarm seems almost comical considering the fact that the same Progressists and Secessionists are very loyal subjects and dutiful citizens, who only want constitutional government with some real responsibility in it, and that most of them would be glad to co-operate with Prince Bismarck if he were less autocratic in his ways and would reasonably co-operate with them. The "covert satisfaction" expressed by the French papers at the result of the elections in Alsace-Lorraine, which is looked upon as an evidence of French sympathies, is a little premature. Germany assimilates new accessions of population slowly but surely. The Prussian province on the left bank of the Rhine was added to the Kingdom of Prussia in 1815. French sympathies lingered there for thirty years after the incorporation of that territory with the Prussian monarchy. For a long time, even within the memory of middle-aged men, the very name of Prussian was hated there and used as a particularly offensive epithet. It continued to be so more or less until the revolutionary movements of 1848 turned the thoughts of men into different channels. Now the German population on the left bank of the Rhine is perhaps more intensely national in feeling than any other in Germany. Alsace and Lorraine will probably pass through the same process. Any great event which takes in the minds of the population the place of the memories of the last war will greatly facilitate that transition.

Prince Bismarck is still evidently a good deal puzzled as to the course he is to take in view of the result of the elections. It is, to be sure, still possible to pursue the course he pursued before 1866, and totally disregard the majority in the Reichstag, but it would be by no means easy. Times have changed since 1866. The Emperor is older, Bismarck himself is older, and the German people are more experienced in politics. Parliamentary government, too, has gained in strength all over Europe, and Germany has less to fear. An article in the *Berlin Post*, a strongly Conservative paper though not an organ of the Chancellor, sketches the difficulties of the situation in an article which is exciting a good deal of attention. It assumes that an attempt will have to be made to govern through a working majority; that no such majority can be formed by the Progressists, and that the materials for it can only be found among the Centre party and the Clericals; that at the head of such a majority Prince Bismarck could not possibly put himself, and that, therefore, somebody else will have to take his place. It is much easier to talk of some such person, however, than to find him. Bismarck has a position which cannot be resigned or laid aside, at least as long as the present Emperor lives. It is not likely that the old gentleman would ever place any reliance on any other adviser, or in fact consult any other adviser; and in Germany the monarch still not only reigns, but governs. He has large undefined powers, which it would be highly embarrassing to the Minister to have exercised, not under his guidance, but under that of a non-official counsellor behind the throne.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

ELECTIONS were held in twelve States on Tuesday. The campaigns preceding the elections have been unusually quiet in all the States with the exception of Virginia. It is impossible as we go to press to obtain any accurate account of the results.

President Arthur has fixed upon Thursday, November 24, as a day of national thanksgiving and prayer.

United States Treasurer Gillfillan has issued his annual report for the fiscal year which ended June 30. It states that the receipts of the Government show an increase over those for 1880 from every source. In comparing the condition of the Treasury on September 30, 1881, with its condition on the same day of last year, the most striking changes are the increase in the gold coin and bullion and standard silver dollars on hand, and in the silver certificates outstanding. The amount of United States currency outstanding at the close of the year was \$362,539,437 65. During the year fifty-four national banks were organized and twenty went into voluntary liquidation, leaving 2,136 doing business at the close of the year.

General Sherman has submitted his annual report on the army. He complains that the army is not strong enough in point of numbers, and that this results in overtaxing its strength. He says that it would be more economical to have a larger force, since this would avoid the drain upon the men's powers and the waste in the matter of supplies and transportation.

General William B. Hazen, Chief Signal Officer, has presented to the Secretary of War his annual report of the operations of the Signal Corps for the year. It states that the year "has been distinguished by additional progress and decided improvements." These points are treated in detail in the report. Some of the most important are the establishment of a permanent school of instruction at Fort Myer, Virginia, the preparation for the press of special bulletins containing weather information of public interest; the forecast of weather and of hot or cold waves for periods exceeding twenty-four hours; the forecast of northers for the interior plateau; the extension of the special warnings to the different agricultural interests of the country; the publication in quarto form of special professional papers; the offering of prizes for essays of great merit on meteorological subjects, and the general extension of the signal-service system in all parts of the country.

The Naval Advisory Board which has been engaged for some time in discussing the subject of the reorganization of the navy, has submitted a report to the Secretary of the Navy, from which it seems that we have now only twenty-one ships of war which are either efficient or worth repairing, and that in order to put the navy upon a proper footing it will be necessary to build at once forty-one ships of various classes. The report states it to be the opinion of the Board that it is best to have a navy of swift iron cruisers and to delay for the present the building of iron-clads. The fact that the construction of this latter class of vessels has been rapidly changing of late renders it advisable to delay making any decision upon them until the navy is provided with ships of a class more fitted for ordinary service.

The total reductions in the Star-route service since Postmaster-General James began operations amount to about \$1,575,000 per annum.

The hearing in relation to the information filed by the Government in the Prescott and Santa Fé Star-route case was begun on Thursday morning before Judge Cox in the Criminal Court at Washington. The defendants undertook to show that the method of proceeding by information, which was adopted by the Government on account of the action of the Statute of Limitations, instead of

by Grand Jury indictment, was illegal and ought not to be allowed. Mr. Wilson opened for the defendants. He was followed on Friday by Mr. Bliss, who addressed the Court for the Government. Mr. Bliss made an able argument, showing that the method of proceeding on the part of the Government in this instance was well sustained by authorities. Mr. Ingersoll and Mr. Chandler continued the argument for the defence on Saturday and Monday.

General John W. Foster, of Indiana, has resigned the Russian Mission. He has been engaged in the diplomatic service of the United States for the past nine years.

The Hon. Lionel Sackville-West, the new British Minister to the United States, arrived in Philadelphia on Friday. He was received by the reception committee and the Mayor of Philadelphia, and was offered the hospitality of the city.

It is probable that something will soon be done about an international-copyright treaty between this country and England. Sir Leonard Tilly has gone to Washington from Canada on business in connection with this question, and has the sanction of the Canadian Government to protect its interests. The British Colonial Office has informed the Canadian Government that Mr. West, the new Minister from England to this country, would enter into negotiations with the United States in regard to the matter.

Several of the leading London newspapers have declared that there is no money in the Bank of England or elsewhere available for the payment of the Confederate bonds. It is also stated in Washington that the State Department has had no correspondence, and does not contemplate having any, with the English Government in reference to the reported balance remaining in the English banks to the credit of the Confederate States.

Bank Examiner Shelley has completed his examination of the affairs of the Mechanics' Bank of Newark, and has forwarded his report to the Comptroller of the Currency. By this report the deficiency in the bank accounts is shown to be \$2,411,000 45. It is now alleged that Nugent, the Newark morocco dealer, has been the dupe of Baldwin, the cashier of the bank, the latter having obtained control of Nugent's business after the panic of 1873, and having since used the funds of the Mechanics' Bank in carrying it on.

It is the opinion at the Bureau of the Comptroller of the Currency that the Newark bank will certainly pay its depositors sixty per cent., and that it is quite probable that it may pay in full.

An article which appeared originally in the *Washington Star*, and which was afterwards reproduced in the press throughout the country, purporting to be a description of what took place at the first Cabinet meeting after the Yorktown celebration, is authoritatively stated to be absolutely without foundation. The article in question described President Arthur as accusing Attorney-General MacVeagh of neglect of his duties in his conduct in regard to the Star-route frauds and the prosecution of Guiteau.

William Brown, a cabinet-maker in Washington, has testified before the committee appointed by Secretary Windom to investigate the methods of disbursing the contingent funds of the Treasury Department, that he did certain work upon the house and stables of Secretary Sherman in 1878 and 1879, for which he was paid out of Treasury funds. Mr. Sherman's friends say that the charges will "not only be met but refuted," but as yet no adequate explanation has been given. This affidavit of Brown's is part of the suppressed testimony in regard to the Treasury frauds. Mr. Pitney, the so-called "custodian" of the Treasury building, who was discharged on account of the revelations made before the investigating committee, says that he has been "sacrificed to screen his superior officers," and that he "possesses documentary and other evi-

dence which will clear him, and place the responsibility for irregularities where it properly belongs."

The Medical Society of the District of Columbia appointed a committee some time ago to investigate the statements which have been made in regard to the unhealthfulness of Washington. The committee have had a meeting at which all the members testified to the general healthfulness of the District as shown by their own practice. A circular letter is to be sent to every practising physician in the District, and a report is to be drawn up based upon the information contained in the replies to the circular.

The official report of the Connecticut State Board of Health has been published and shows, among other things, a considerable increase of malarial diseases in that State. An interesting chapter on this subject is also to be found in the Massachusetts State Board of Health's newly issued report.

The lower house of the Legislature of Washington Territory has passed a bill giving the right of suffrage to women. Although a similar bill was defeated in the upper house some time ago, it is thought that it will come up in another shape and pass.

The trial of Lieutenant Flipper has begun. He is arraigned on two charges—namely, embezzlement and false statements. The defence spent Monday in a cross-examination of Colonel Shafter, who testified that before Flipper was relieved from the Commissary Department he thought him perfectly honest and of good habits, and if money had been stolen, he thought it had been stolen by some one else.

Last week was the most successful thus far of the Atlanta Exposition, the number of visitors having been forty per cent. greater than during any previous week. There is no doubt that the Exposition is a success, and that it will do a great deal of good to the South.

The long-pending controversy in regard to the priority of invention of the telephone has reached the stage of argument before the Examiner of Interferences in the Patent Office. There are five parties to the contest, including Messrs. Edison and Bell.

There was another steamboat disaster on the Mississippi on Friday night. The passenger packet *War Eagle* was carried by the force of the current against the Keokuk and Hamilton bridge, at Keokuk, Iowa. The officers of the steamboat behaved gallantly, and only two lives were lost. The steamer, however, was badly injured, and the bridge was damaged to the amount of \$150,000.

On Saturday night the New York Chamber of Commerce gave a dinner to the French and German delegates to the Yorktown Centennial. There were about two hundred and fifty guests present. On Monday night a grand ball was given in honor of the delegates. They subsequently "disbanded." Some of them left for Europe on Wednesday, while others are to prolong their stay in order to see a little more of the country.

The members of the Ninth Regiment of Massachusetts are said to have behaved in a very disorderly manner in Richmond on their way to and from the Yorktown celebration, and a committee has been sent from Massachusetts to investigate the charges against them.

FOREIGN.

M. Brisson has been elected President of the French Chamber of Deputies by a large majority over the Legitimist and Bonapartist candidates.

Questions in regard to the Government's policy in Tunis were brought forward in the French Chamber of Deputies on Saturday. Premier Ferry, defending the policy of the Government, indignantly repelled the "calumnies" against M. Roustan, the French Minister to Tunis, and said that the Tunisian expedition had originated from the necessity of

protecting the Algerian frontier. He declared a French protectorate over the country to be inevitable, and denied the charge that the expedition had caused France to lose alliances or had disorganized the army. In conclusion, he urged the Chamber to do nothing that might compromise the interests of the army or of France. The debate has been feeble and uninteresting. No new facts of any importance were brought out. One of the members of the Opposition accused the Minister of War of having disorganized the army and falsified the official sanitary statistics.

The insurgents are said to have retreated from the vicinity of Kairwan in two bodies, one towards the coast, and the other into the province of Djerid. Their rapid movements make an attempt to surround them extremely difficult.

General Étienne has been appointed Provisional Governor of Susa and Kairwan.

A London despatch states that an army of 25,000 French volunteers will be formed for the purpose of occupying Tunis. Each volunteer will receive 1,500 francs, half of which is to be paid on his engagement and half at the close of his term of service, which is to be five years. Twenty-five hectares of land in Algeria will be allotted to him.

It is reported from Turin that negotiations are actively proceeding for the absolute cession to France of all the territory north of the river Medjerda.

It is stated that communications have been exchanged between France and England relative to the steps which are to be taken in case of a fresh military outbreak in Egypt. It is said that the leaders of the recent demonstration in Egypt are aware that any further action will lead to Anglo-French intervention, and that they are anxious to provide for their own safety.

The *Bulletin du Canal* has published an article, which is supposed to be an expression of the views of M. de Lesseps, upon Secretary Blaine's circular in regard to the Panama Canal. The article says that the just interests of the United States are already provided for in the terms of the concession by Colombia to the Panama Canal Company, and that, therefore, it is entirely unnecessary for America to trouble herself in the matter.

The conferences between the English and French Commissioners on the commercial treaty between the two countries have terminated. It is stated that the points upon which no arrangement has yet been reached will be settled through the ordinary diplomatic channels. It is not known as yet what conclusion was come to in the conferences, but it is thought that a definitive agreement will soon be concluded.

In Germany all political parties are actively pushing the claims of their respective candidates in those districts where a second ballot is necessary. Up to this time a majority of these second elections have fallen to the Liberals. The ministerial newspapers have expressed themselves very bitterly in regard to the result of the elections. One of them, the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, says that the continued success of the Progressists and Secessionists means "Finis Germaniæ."

Prince Bismarck is reported to have declared his opposition to the anti-Semitic movement which has played such a large part in the recent German elections, and to have said that he would never entertain any proposal to curtail the constitutional rights of the Jews.

There has been a split in the Democratic party in Spain. A number of prominent men, including Señor Martos, have withdrawn from the party and will probably unite with Castelar. This defection has greatly weakened the Democratic or Revolutionary party, as it is sometimes called, and will have the effect of strengthening the present reigning dynasty

and providing an additional guarantee of peaceful progress for Spain.

The debate in the Spanish Cortes upon the address in reply to the speech from the throne has been concluded. The Government won a decisive victory.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies, on Tuesday, Premier Sagasta, in replying to Señor Robledo, declared that the Cabinet would remain true to the Liberal programme. He said it preferred a monarchy like that founded by Victor Emmanuel to one on the Neapolitan model.

The Conservatives in Havana have sent a congratulatory despatch to the Minister of the Colonies at Madrid, thanking him for repudiating, in a recent speech in the Chamber of Deputies, the proposition of autonomy for Cuba.

The Budget Committee of the Spanish Cortes has approved the Ministerial Conversion Scheme, and has granted Señor Comacho, the Minister of Finance, authority to enter upon negotiations with the bondholders.

The recent visit of King Humbert to the Emperor Francis Joseph has given rise in European diplomatic circles to many comments and speculations as to its significance. The representatives of Italy and Austria have been empowered to give the various governments to which they are accredited "identical and most satisfactory assurances in regard to the interview."

Disturbances continue in Ireland, but the successful working of the Land Act is gradually creating a better feeling among the people. The land courts are receiving a large amount of business. The court which sits at Belfast has caused consternation among the landlords by reducing the rental on two estates by one-third. It has also laid down the principle that improvements on estates shall be presumed to have been made by the tenant unless the landlord can prove the contrary, disregarding even express contracts between the landlord and tenant by which the improvements became the landlord's property. The result is that such improvements will not be considered as part of the capital upon which the landlord is entitled to receive rent. Justice O'Hagan has defined fair rent as such a rent as will enable the tenant to live and thrive. It is said that the Land League, finding that it is unable to prevent tenants from resorting to the land courts, is now encouraging litigation with the object of causing a complete block in its operations through an excessive amount of business. Miss Parnell, wishing to test the legality of the proceedings of the Ladies' Land League, publicly announced in the newspapers of Wednesday that a meeting of the League would be held on that day. No attempt was made to interfere with the meeting.

There will probably be many appeals from the decision of the Sub-Commissioners under the Land Act to the Central Court at Dublin. Many of the landlords apprehend that if the present system of sweeping reduction is carried out, their property will be confiscated to a large extent and many of them ruined.

On account of the great expense necessitated, it is said that there will be only three more Sub-Commissioners under the Land Act for the present. Nine additional Commissioners have been appointed for one year only, the Government believing that by the expiration of that time the undue pressure of the work will have been removed.

The Right Hon. Hugh Law, Attorney-General for Ireland, has been appointed to succeed Lord O'Hagan as Lord Chancellor of Ireland. William M. Johnson, Member of Parliament for Mallow and Solicitor-General for Ireland, will succeed Mr. Law as Attorney-General.

The London *Times* has replied to the arguments of the Fair Traders by printing a long statement showing that the increase in the trade of Great Britain has been greater than

that of the United States. The *Times* estimates the loss to America through the decline of her shipping at £16,000,000 a year. The article states that the increase of American exports is principally in such articles as grain, to which she gives no protection.

A gigantic strike is said to be imminent in the Staffordshire potteries in England. All the men connected with operative associations have resolved to cease work on Thursday next unless an increase of wages is granted. The strike will affect 50,000 employees. At a meeting on Monday the employers pledged themselves to refuse an advance.

The trial of Arthur Lefroy for the murder of Mr. Gold in a Brighton Railway carriage, which has excited very great interest in England, came to a close on Tuesday. The prisoner was found guilty and sentenced to be hanged.

It is stated that the city government of Venice has determined to fill up the smaller canals and convert them into streets. In addition to this the gondolas are threatened with extinction, owing to a recent concession to a steamboat company on the Grand Canal.

The King of Greece has dissolved the Chamber of Representatives. The general elections for the new Chamber, in which the provinces recently added to the kingdom will participate, will take place on the 1st of January.

The Grand Cordon of the Order of the Redeemer has been conferred by the King upon Mr. Reed, formerly American Minister at Athens, in recognition of the eminent services he has rendered to Greece.

A statue of Lord Byron has been unveiled at Missolonghi, where he died. The ceremony was attended with great popular enthusiasm.

Affairs seem to be growing more and more gloomy in Russia. Riots are feared in consequence of the increasing dearness of provisions, and circulars are being distributed charging the Czar with being the cause of all the trouble.

The correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph* at Constantinople states that the Russians will shortly occupy Merv, and that one of the chiefs of the Tekkes has arrived at Merv to negotiate on behalf of Russia for the submission of all the Turkomans.

A despatch from Buenos Ayres, by way of London, states that the United States Minister at Santiago had informed the Chilean Government that the United States would not interfere in the negotiations for a treaty of peace with Peru.

Señor Altamirano, Mayor of Valparaiso, has been appointed Civil Governor of the Peruvian territory now occupied by the Chileans. A Santiago newspaper says that the rumor increases in strength that the Chilean Government intends to prolong indefinitely the occupation of Peru and to organize its administration on a firmer footing than at present. A civil government is to be substituted for the present military one, but it will be sustained by a military force sufficient to crush all armed resistance. It is stated that every effort has been made in Peru to create a belief in the public mind that the United States contemplates an armed intervention on behalf of the Calderon government, and General Hurlbut's letters have been widely circulated.

The Mexican Senate has approved the law abrogating the authority of the President to grant railway concessions. He is still authorized, however, to alter existing concessions and to transfer those that may become forfeited.

Great indignation has been caused among the native and foreign merchants in Panama by the resolution of the State Government to increase their taxes twenty-five per cent. The taxes are to be assessed arbitrarily, and are based upon the amount of business which each merchant is supposed to have transacted.

TUESDAY, November 8, 1881.

IS THE CAUCUS PERFECT?

MR. ADIN THAYER, a prominent and very respectable politician of Massachusetts, has been reading a paper to the Massachusetts Club on "The Caucus System," which pleased his fellow-members so much that they have printed it for publication in pamphlet form. The caucus has of late years been so much denounced by reformers, and so many of the ills of the body politic are ascribed to its working, that a formal defence of it by a respectable politician can hardly fail to be interesting reading. We have read Mr. Thayer's pamphlet attentively. He discusses in eloquent language the failure of all republics preceding ours, but believes, nevertheless, that ours will succeed, and meets the talk of "educated simpletons of the inadequacy of republican institutions," by telling them that "he hears it with unutterable disgust"—a frame of mind, let us observe, in which an adversary's arguments are hardly likely to receive due consideration. That the talk of "the educated simpletons," however, makes some impression on him, we are led to infer from his admission a little further on, that, in view of the numerous failures of republics both in ancient and modern times, "surely we ought to indulge in no overweening confidence in the success of our own experiment; that no weak optimism should lead us to relax that vigilance which is forever the price of liberty." In fact, on a calm view of the situation, he says he should be inclined to despair, along with the "educated simpletons," if it were not for the existence of "certain institutions, which are to a great extent peculiar to this country"—namely, "the common school, the free press, the town-meeting, and the caucus," the latter term including the political convention. He confines his defence, however, to the caucus, the influence of the others, he says, being "fully appreciated," and therefore needing no defence.

The caucus, he tells us, was invented by Sam Adams, in consequence of his having found the press and the town meeting "insufficient for his purpose of establishing liberty regulated by law." The experiment has, Mr. Thayer continues, "been tried and has proved an abundant success." Nevertheless, it evidently has not proved such an overwhelming success as to silence all cavillers, for it appears that in spite of its having received "the approval of Hancock, and Otis, and Warren, and the Adamses," it is made by "some of our doctrinaires" the object of "flippant denunciations." This is not all, however. "Thousands yes, hundreds of thousands of intelligent men," Mr. Thayer says, "to-day pride themselves on their indifference to politics; and the number is constantly increasing." In other words, they do not attend the caucus or respect it. "There is danger," Mr. Thayer truly remarks, "in the situation." He also admits that if the Massachusetts judges were to attend the caucus, "a morbid and sickly sentimentality would declaim against dragging the judicial ermine in the mire of politics." He uses the clergymen as an illustration in the same way: shows that it was the refusal of the property-holders, "the conscience, the wealth, and the intellect" of New York, to attend the

caucus, which made possible the robberies of the Tweed Ring, and that even in Massachusetts a "portion of her culture and scholarship derides the caucus." He sums up by saying that "the continued neglect of the caucus will work the ruin of the republic, for it means in the end the ruin of all real interest in public affairs," and he enforces this dismal prediction by pointing to the fate which overtook Greece and Rome.

Now, we are far more hopeful about the republic than Mr. Thayer is, although he evidently thinks himself a great optimist. We do not believe, as he evidently does, that its fate is at all dependent on the preservation of the caucus in its present shape. He is one of that class of active politicians, in our day, who have taken so large a part, in creating the existing machinery of party management, and have acquired so much skill in using it—we do not say this by way of depreciation—that they have, being mostly past middle life, come to look upon it as the last step in political progress and the last word in political philosophy. From the account he gives of Sam Adams, the inventor of the caucus, one would suppose that the union of liberty and law had not been thought of before his time. But the fact is that Sam Adams, like nearly all men of his day, inherited his fundamental political ideas, and he invented the caucus for the use of a people already free and used to self-government. The race had been steadily advancing, politically as well as in other ways, from the time of the Heptarchy up to Sam Adams's time. The greatest political invention of the modern world, representative legislatures, was hit upon centuries before Sam Adams was born. This in no way detracts from his merits either as a thinker or statesman. It simply denies him the credit which Mr. Thayer claims for him, and to which no man except Moses or Mohammed is entitled—the credit of having invented something in politics which it is not possible to improve and not safe to discard. There is no such thing. There never will be any such thing. Political machinery has been improving ever since cannibals made the regulation that the victim's head should always be kept for the chief. It will continue to improve to the end, by being adapted to the changing needs of society. Kings, parliaments, municipal governments, codes of law, rules of procedure, the organization of courts, all change. Within our own time the greatest change made since the introduction of representation has occurred in the establishment of universal suffrage. There is not a State in the Union, or in Europe, which is not to-day trying new experiments in its political organization and in its legislation, with the view of meeting new political wants and diseases. There is no more justification for or more possibility of stagnation or repose in the political art than in the mechanic arts. The inventor of candles was a good man and a useful man, but reverence for his memory does not forbid us to try gas and electricity. So also the caucus was a good thing, as Sam Adams established it, for the needs of the society into which he introduced it. Mr. Thayer now admits that it does not give satisfaction; that a very large class, and a very valuable one in some ways,

and whose arguments he meets with epithets, distrust it, and refuse to use it, and that in consequence of this refusal the Government runs some risk of falling wholly into the hands of the ignorant and corrupt. In every other field of human activity the state of things which Mr. Thayer describes would suggest improvements calculated to remedy the revealed defects. In all branches of art, inventors and manufacturers, when they find the public will not use their machine or implement, try to find out what it is the public wants, and make such changes as are necessary to meet the want. They do not take the stump and begin to denounce the public for not liking what was good enough for their great-grandfathers in the last century. But in politics men who have once mastered the arts by which voters are managed in any given year, apparently find no difficulty in persuading themselves that their last little device is one of the eternal forces of nature, to which it is the duty of man to adapt himself as he adapts himself to the climate, or to the law of gravitation.

Now, we are among the number of those who believe the caucus was a good thing when Sam Adams invented it; that it is a good thing in many parts of the country to-day just as he left it; that to the altered condition of society in many parts of the country, and particularly the great cities, it is now wholly unsuited; that it needs, as a method of nominating candidates, serious changes; that these changes must and will be made before long, under the great law of progress which was in operation one thousand years before the Massachusetts Club turned its attention to politics, and will save the human race one thousand years after the Club has been forgotten; that those who demand such changes are not all "simpletons" or "flippant doctrinaires," and that neither Mr. Thayer nor anybody else can avert them by calling names. The narrowness of his experience in the matter is curiously illustrated by the fact that under his definition of the right of bolting, which even he reserves for himself under certain circumstances, he would not be permitted to take part in any Republican caucus in this city.

In short, the caucus, like government in general, was made for man, and not man for the caucus. Moreover, American society, like all human society, is made up of various elements, and the best system of party nominations is that in which it is easiest for the most intelligent, and the laziest and most indifferent to take part. The eager, and interested, and patriotic, and rough-and-ready will participate in the working of any system. What is needed is a system in which the most refined and sensitive and fastidious and scholarly and rich will find no difficulty in participating. And we would warn Mr. Thayer and his friends that if the ruin of the republic is to be feared, as he says it is, from the reluctance of this class to share in the work of selecting candidates for office, nothing can be more important than overcoming this reluctance. But it is not to be overcome by declamatory abuse of this any more than of any other class, but by doing what Sam Adams did—namely, adapting your

machinery to the times you live in and the people you have to work with. What the changes in the nominating system should be we propose to discuss hereafter.

WHICH RAISED MOST MONEY FOR THE CANVASS?

As usual at the close of a canvass, a dispute has arisen as to which of the two parties has spent most money. Each maintains stoutly that it has spent hardly anything, while the outlay of its opponents has been lavish, and exhibits a kind of loathing for the practice of using money for elections. At the beginning of a canvass, however, the tone of the managers is very different. Then they say that without money, and plenty of money, success is impossible; that money is the sinews of politics as well as of war, and that nobody but mollicoddles and theorists objects to the raising and spending of it in rousing voters to a sense of their duty. The duty of officeholders to make up contributions is also dwelt on with much emphasis by the Republican leaders at the outset of a struggle, not—Heaven forbid—as a means of saving themselves from the displeasure of their superiors, but in order to keep the Democrats from getting possession of the Government, and thus destroying the only chance we have of genuine civil service reform.

At the close both parties play a totally different tune. We are now told that the Republicans have expended very little money. "No attempt has been made to collect regular assessments from the employees of the Government." "Not one-third of the employees of the Government," says a member of the Executive Committee, in the columns of the *Tribune*,

"have contributed a single cent, at least through this committee, to the expenses of the campaign. On the other hand, the employees of the city departments have contributed, almost without exception, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of their salaries to the Democratic campaign fund. The clerks in the Mayor's office made similar contributions, and the Mayor himself, to my personal knowledge, gave a very liberal percentage of his own salary, notwithstanding his cheap attempt to gain political capital out of a letter deprecating assessments. He will undoubtedly say that these contributions were not compulsory; but if a head of department subscribes $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on a list and then sends a man to collect subscriptions on the same list from his employees, how many of them will dare refuse to follow his example? Well, that is just what was done, and by this means the Democrats have been very liberally supplied with campaign funds."

Now, in the first place, the assertion that no attempt has been made to collect regular assessments from the employees of the Government is not only untrue, but impudently untrue, as the attempt was made through printed circulars. If it be true that only one-third of the employees paid anything in response to the circular, it shows simply that the attempt failed. Hugh Gardner's attempt, in his shirt-sleeves, on behalf of the Republican Committee, to fleece the unfortunate letter-carriers by levying a regular assessment on them, at the Astor House, was as public and brazen as that worthy politician could make it. If it was only partially successful, so much the better; but its authors really ought not to come forward and produce its failure as a proof of their own virtue. When a burglar finds a window-fastening too much

for him, he does not go about and brag of it as a proof that he is leading an honest life.

The question which this wretched business now suggests to be put to the Republican managers is, why, if they get so little from the officeholders as they say they do, they do not give up levying assessments, "regular" or other, altogether. What they receive cannot, according to their own account, possibly compensate them for the scandal and odium which the attempt excites. A larger and larger portion of the party is every year disgusted by these efforts to make a body of very poor and hard-worked men pay the principal part of the expenses of the canvass of a party whose members possess more than half the wealth of the country, and "claim" to possess two-thirds at least of its patriotism.

It may or may not be true that the Democrats have levied $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the salaries of the city employees. They are certainly quite capable of it, and as they do not even pretend to be as pure as the Republicans, it would be hard for a Republican to find fault with them for following the Republican example. But it is to be observed that under the existing State law, as interpreted by the Court of Appeals, city employees enjoy a security of tenure which makes it perfectly easy for them to refuse to pay assessments if they choose, and which we are thus far vainly trying to procure for those of the Federal Government. A clerk in the City Hall who pays money for elections is either an improvident person, or an ambitious politician who wants to keep his footing good in the various wigwags and halls of the party, and deserves no sympathy.

ENGLISH LIBERALS AND IRISH COERCION.

It looks now as if the Land agitation in Ireland would be taken up, in part at least, by the friends of woman suffrage, both in Ireland and England, owing to the apparent unwillingness of the Government to interfere with the meetings of the female branch of the Land League. Miss Helen Taylor, the step-daughter and literary executor of John Stuart Mill, has gone over to Ireland and joined Miss Fanny Parnell in keeping up the work of the League, but seems to be mainly interested in the matter of the arbitrary arrests, which is undoubtedly trying the souls of a good many of the English Liberals a good deal. It is not improbable, indeed, that it is going to lead to considerable Liberal losses in coming elections. Mr. Gladstone will probably suffer from that very condition of English opinion about Ireland which gives the cause of Home Rule all the strength it has. The normal condition of the ordinary middle-class English mind about Ireland is one of almost complete ignorance, coupled with extreme dislike of the Irish, as, to use Mr. Walter's words, "a fractious and turbulent people." As far back as the ordinary Englishman can remember there has been trouble in Ireland, and his father has told him that as long as he can remember the same state of things existed. Moreover, he can recall no time when the necessity of governing Ireland by martial law did not every now and then seem plain enough

in English counting-houses and clubs; and the excuses made by the Irish for their rows struck him as impudently amusing. That people should be discontented on account of what they say happened fifty or one hundred years ago—not one-quarter of which he believes—he thinks very absurd indeed, and he accounts for it by the theory, which he firmly holds, that the Irish mind is so constituted that it can comfortably contain two contradictory propositions lying side by side. When, therefore, Irish disorder reaches a certain point he becomes very angry, and in his rage thinks the proper remedy is "troops," and abuses the Ministry for not applying it. When the Ministry does apply it, however, and the arrests are made, and the agitators are lying silent in jail, and the meetings have been dispersed, Russian fashion, by the police, there comes to him a period of cool reflection the results of which are apt to be painful. He remembers that the Irish are his fellow-subjects, that they live under the same Constitution with himself, and that he has been for many years preaching to the King of Naples, and the Czar, and the Emperor of Austria the doctrine that there is no such thing as causeless popular discontent; that when there is discontent, it is best that its manifestations should be open, and that anyhow force is no remedy. Then he feels a little ashamed of his course in the Irish affair. The criticisms of foreigners trouble him. He looks about for somebody to bear the blame of his folly, and easily works himself into the belief that it was the Ministers who did it; that they ought to have been more calm and patient, and not to have minded what he said. And then he appears once more as a friend of freedom, and, like Mr. Cowen, who sympathized warmly with the Turks against the Russians after the Batak massacres, he turns round and asks himself, when such things are permitted in Dublin, how long it will be before he sees them in London.

Neither Miss Helen Taylor nor any other English Liberal, however, seems as yet to have fully got at the root of the Irish difficulty. Force is not a remedy, but the application of force is often necessary as a palliative in order to give the remedy time to work. Moreover, no people in the world probably have less natural objection to the use of force at a crisis than the Irish. But they, like every other people in the world, cannot bear to see force, even when they admit its necessity, applied by a foreign hand. Now, Mr. Gladstone's hand, however benign, is a foreign one, and so is Forster's, and the majority which passed the Coercion Bill was a foreign majority, and it is this which makes its working unbearable. So that really what the Irish crisis calls for is not so much freedom of speech as the exercise of the powers of government by persons whom the bulk of the population do not look upon as aliens in feeling and traditions.

The Irish question is full of anomalies, but the most striking of them all is the extent to which the part of the population which has national feeling and national aspirations is bereft of leaders of education and social position. This accounts in a large degree for the spirit of childish mischief which seems to characterize Irish agitation, and which exasperates

Englishmen so much. The old Catholic gentry were driven out of the country with extraordinary completeness after each of the civil wars, and the new gentry who succeeded them not only belonged to a foreign race and to a foreign church, but, unlike the earlier Norman invaders, never amalgamated with the people. It is not true of the Cromwellian and Williamite settlers, as it was of the Normans, that they became "more Irish than the Irish themselves." On the contrary, they have remained more English than the English themselves. There is more old-fashioned English Toryism, Jingoism, and Anti-Liberalism of all sorts to be found among the Irish Protestant gentry to-day than among the corresponding class in England. They are as loyal to the British Crown as, and more firmly attached to the Union than, Englishmen themselves. They serve in proportionally greater numbers in the army, and hold the Irish nationalist agitation in greater horror. All the distinction they win in any field—and they win a good deal—is set down to the credit of England: that is, they win it as Englishmen and not as Irishmen. How few people ever think of Burke, or Castlereagh, or Wellington, or the Marquis of Wellesley, or Canning, or Palmerston, or Sir Henry Lawrence, or Lord Gough, or Lord Mayo, or General Nicholson, or Sir Garnet Wolseley, or Sir Frederick Roberts as Irishmen; and yet they were or are all more Irish than Parnell. The result is that when the Catholic population wishes to show its discontent, it has no proper organs for the purpose. It is ignorant and poor, and bred in the habit of looking at the Government, not as its servant, but as its enemy and oppressor. It therefore makes its wants known through paltry agents, and through the outrages, tumults, riots, and crimes which, as unhappy experience has taught it, are the only means by which it can reach the ear of the English Parliament, of which nearly five hundred out of six hundred members have probably never been in Ireland, and consider Irish questions a bore.

The great work of pacifying Ireland will consist in making Catholic and Nationalist masses believe that they, or persons in whom they have confidence, have a share in governing Ireland—that the Government is in fact their Government, as well as that of Englishmen and Scotchmen; and this can only be done by putting in the Cabinet men selected for the place by Irish opinion, just as Mr. Chamberlain was selected by English Radical opinion, or the Lord Advocate by Scotch opinion. It is put further off than ever by the appearance in Ireland of an Englishman like Mr. Forster, charged with the administration of military law as a remedy for discontent. The most reasonable people in the world would be exasperated by this, the most unreasonable rendered more unreasonable still.

SCHOOLS OF FORESTRY.

A GENERAL idea pervades the public mind that the forests of the United States are being too rapidly consumed, and that something ought to be done to protect and restore them. Forestry is expected to accomplish much in this direction—the very vagueness, to most American minds, of the term forestry only adding to its supposed

power to accomplish wonderful results. Forest schools have been found useful in many of the countries of Europe in training young men to become practical foresters, and the desire to establish here similar schools has taken possession of various public-spirited individuals in widely different parts of the country. A few years ago we were told by other public-spirited citizens that State agricultural colleges were needed to place American agriculture on a firm scientific basis. They were accordingly founded at great expense, and in great numbers; their success, however, has not, we believe, been great. But this is not the occasion to discuss the advantages such schools afford for obtaining a sound agricultural education. We shall, perhaps, at some future time find an opportunity to examine this subject more fully, and to explain why, in our opinion, the Agricultural Experimental Station is, in the present condition of American agriculture, of far greater value to the community than the Agricultural College as at present organized.

Schools of forestry, on the European plan, will hardly command a greater success here at present than have American agricultural schools. In Europe the growth of the school of forestry has been natural. Its origin may be traced to the great entailed forests, the property of the crown and the nobles. The revenues derived from these forests have always been an important source of income to their owners, and the necessity of properly managing them has gradually developed in Europe a science of forestry, and has produced the trained, scientific forester. The European forester is a recognized member of society, whose duties are clearly defined, and whose services are in constant and certain demand. Graduates, therefore, of European forest schools are sure of well-paid and immediate employment, with fair prospects of promotion. It is evident that such schools, teaching the lessons acquired through centuries of practical forest management, and being in a position to secure for their graduates remunerative employment, are in a healthy and natural condition, and capable of playing an important part in industrial education. In the United States the conditions under which schools of forestry could be established, at the present time, are very different. We are without tradition or experience of sound forest management on which to base any system of instruction in forestry, while every European country differs so widely from our own in climate, soil, and especially in the tenure of land, that little of practical value to the people of the United States is to be gained from a study of the various systems of forestry practised in Europe. A greater difficulty in establishing successful schools of forestry here lies in the fact that the graduates of such schools could not find employment in the profession for which their education had prepared them. There is not yet any demand for educated foresters in this country, and until such a demand exists there can be no inducement for young men to devote several years of their lives to obtaining a special training for that which has no market value. If there is no demand for what the school can teach, there is no demand for the school.

Schools of forestry, however, must not be confounded with arboretums. The Arboretum, if properly directed, should bear the same relation to the school of forestry that the Agricultural Experimental Station should bear to the school of agriculture. Its functions should lie in the direction of experiment and the general dissemination of knowledge; and, as an experimental station, it is capable of taking an important position in preparing the way for schools of forestry when the demand for trained foresters shall have made their existence possi-

ble. The planting and management of forests is a practical occupation, and to be successful it must be conducted on purely business principles. In parenthesis we hazard the query—and we approach this subject, it must be confessed, with very considerable misgivings as to the punishment which is in store for us—Why does the American citizen break forth in song when he feels called upon to discourse on trees? Trees, in their economic aspect at least, are as prosaic as other vegetable productions—the cotton-plant, or the cabbage. For example; and until sentiment and fine writing can be dispensed with in treating the economic questions of forest management there is little hope that silviculture can become a profitable branch of agriculture. That the cultivation of trees, if undertaken under proper conditions and on a sufficiently large scale, can be made profitable at the present time both in the Eastern and Western States, we firmly believe. Unless such an enterprise can be made to pay a fair return for the capital invested, it is useless to consider the subject of forestry at all—except sentimentally; but if it can be demonstrated that money invested in the formation and care of forests can earn a proper rate of interest, capital will be eager to engage in this new form of industry.

This can only be proved by actual experiment. The difficulties to overcome at the outset of such an enterprise are considerable. A planted forest to be profitable should be of considerable extent; the first outlays are large, and years must elapse before the first crop can be harvested. Here is the principal difficulty in the whole matter; few persons can invest a large sum of money in such a manner that they cannot themselves, unless under exceptional circumstances, hope to see any return from their investment. If the experiment is to be tried at all on a large scale, and with a reasonable hope of success, it must be tried by a corporation—either a railroad with unoccupied lands suitable for the purpose, or, better, by a company specially chartered to hold and manage forest property. Such a corporation, with its capital stock divided among a large number of small investors and managed with business sagacity, might carry on its operations on a large scale without imposing excessive individual burdens, and with very considerable prospect of success and future large profits. Such an enterprise should clearly demonstrate whether capital could safely and profitably engage in the cultivation of trees; and as the cotton-mill and the machine-shop are the best schools in which to acquire the training necessary to become a successful cotton manufacturer or machinist, a forest conducted on purely scientific principles would give young men the best possible opportunity to learn the practical details of forest management. Such forests, if sufficiently multiplied, would require trained managers, and would naturally create a demand for fully equipped forest schools, in which a knowledge of the theory of the subject as well as of the practice could be acquired. The first steps towards the establishment of such an enterprise will naturally encounter certain obstacles; but, once taken, and taken wisely, results can be obtained which may lead to the successful development of a great industry.

PERNICIOUS READING IN OUR PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

MR. J. M. HUBBARD has for some time been protesting against the character of the fiction supplied to children by the Boston Public Library—at first in the *Boston Herald*, then by means of a memorial to the city government, and finally in a pamphlet of twenty-three pages published by A. Williams & Co. In the memorial he pre-

sented a list of about one hundred objectionable books circulated (often in many copies) by the Library, with evidence as to their character in the shape of extracts from reviews in the *Athenæum*, *Academy*, *Spectator*, *Saturday Review*, and *Nation*. A committee of the City Council laid the list before the Trustees, who in their last annual report defended their course on the ground that "it would be highly improper for the Trustees to exclude such authors as these, whose works are read in every circle of society, and which the public, who are taxed to support the institution, demand. While they carefully exclude from circulation, especially among the young, all books of an immoral influence, they do not consider themselves in the position of parents or guardians to the community, bound to select for it only such books as suit their own tastes." This was said originally of a list of authors differing in part from the one given in the memorial, but in a note it is made to refer to the memorial list also. Thereupon Mr. Hubbard, having different ideas as to what are "books of an immoral influence," has published the list, somewhat enlarged in the number of criticisms quoted, though not in the number of books mentioned.

It is a literary curiosity. Few people, we imagine, were aware that there are so many so bad books belonging to the literature of the last twenty years and "read in every circle of society." We may not be fit judges of the value of the criticisms, for many of them are taken from our own columns; but the majority are derived from the *Academy*, *Athenæum*, and *Saturday Review*, which have never had the reputation of being over nice. "Vulgar" is the mildest epithet. "Maudlin sentiment," "nauseous," "fleshly taint," "unwholesome," "unnatural vileness," "broadly delineated passion," "uncleanliness," "reeking with sin," "sniggering suggestion," are the flowers of criticism which may be gathered on every page. Unintentional bigamy, seduction, adultery, are the subjects of a large part of these hundred novels. "The great object of books like these," said the *Athenæum* in 1867, "is to teach immorality by presenting it in an interesting and seductive form, and by making good people, who live according to the ordinary laws of decency, appear tame, stupid, and despicable. . . . It is time for critics to speak out boldly, and to declare in plain language what they think of the tendencies of these books, and see by so doing whether they cannot put a stop to their production."

Critics must have seen by this time that they can do no such thing. Mr. Hubbard apparently hopes to put a stop to the circulation of this literature, in which we fear he will equally fail; but possibly a certain repressive influence may be produced by this massing of testimony which could not be expected from single, dispersed outcries. Parents and guardians may be induced to reassume their disused duties, and supervise their children's selection of books or keep them away from the Library altogether.

There is certainly occasion for more care. There has been a great change in American customs in this respect in the last fifty years. Formerly, in many families, to read novels at all was considered not merely a waste of time, but a sin. Now in the same families everything is read. Unfortunately, while this change has been coming about, a great wave of French influence has been sweeping over English authorship, and has almost entirely submerged not merely its former prudishness, which would be no great loss, but a large part of its former purity. The spirit of the *opéra bouffe* has penetrated fiction as well as the stage. In France this literature of adultery is considered to belong to the kind "*dont la mère ne permettra*

pas la lecture à sa fille." In America, unluckily, the mother's permission is not asked for her daughter's reading. We do not know that any harm has yet come from it. We cannot put our finger on any specific evil that can be traced to "*La Belle Hélène*" on the stage, or to *Ouida* and *Broughton* and *Zola* in literature, or the *Beecher* trial in real life. It never is easy to trace the result of moral agency for either good or evil. But one thing is certain: if this stuff has no bad influence on the age, then the preaching of Christianity can have no good influence—the age must be utterly unimpressionable. It is incredible that so much pitch should not defile, that the tone of public feeling should not be in the end lowered by constant familiarity with such perverted thought.

We are not now speaking especially of the vulgarity and bad taste of these books, nor even of their occasional indecency; these are largely matters of convention, and, though they may offend, will not of necessity seriously hurt readers. Indeed, it may be well that these writers should display enough of both these qualities to drive away some readers in disgust. The real evil is the thoroughly unchristian, because selfish, spirit that is in them all; and the idea which pervades almost all that we have either read or read about, that passion is rightly lord of all. The very least the most indulgent critic can say is, that books saturated with this spirit will not have an elevating influence, and that it is not worth while to take any especial pains to put them within the reach of everybody; that in doing it no institution does any good or deserves any praise; and that if any appreciable proportion of the fiction circulated by the Public Library, at an annual cost of \$30,000, consists of such novels, the money could be better spent.

We may even confess that after reading Mr. Hubbard's extracts, we were not so much surprised as we had always been at the remark of the head master of one of the Boston schools who had given some attention to his pupils' reading: "The Public Library is a curse to the school children." But we are not concerned with that library now. It would be hazardous for a journal in another city to criticise the action of its Trustees taken deliberately in view of circumstances best known to them. We have mentioned this pamphlet chiefly to call to the attention of the authorities of our city and town libraries. It may lead some who have been liberal or careless in their purchases of fiction to consider whether, after all, it is worth while to spend any considerable part of their limited funds in the purchase of such rubbish as is here characterized, and whether, again, the public as a whole really do "demand" such reading, and whether if it is necessary to furnish some, it is necessary to furnish so much. To a small library the argument derived from the odium of a censorship does not apply. The great library, it is thought, must buy everything, because it has money enough to buy everything; but the small library is under no such compulsion. Even if it would like to purchase everything, it cannot. It must select. There are enough good books—interesting good books—to use up all the income of most town libraries. The question then is, Shall it buy doubtful morality and undoubted vulgarity, and by so doing incapacitate itself for buying wholesome and refining literature, or shall it get the better class of books, and have the excuse of "no funds" at its service when it is asked to procure undesirable works?

The question does not seem to need any long discussion. Of course it is difficult to draw the line. It is a question of degree. First, there are the disgusting books, which everybody would exclude, as every one would consent that the

sale of poisons and drugged whiskey should be placed under restrictions; then there are the doubtful books, ranging, as we may say, from brandy to lager-beer, about the prohibition of which there is every variety of opinion; and, finally, there are the unobjectionable novels—cream, milk, and milk and water—which a trustee can supply without any qualms of conscience. (He may have doubts about the last, but we believe he will find infant stomachs that cannot endure anything stronger.) General consensus of all readers marks off the lowest class. A nearly general consensus of critics marks off the lowest parts of the second class. It is here that Mr. Hubbard's pamphlet becomes valuable to trustees who have not the critical journals at hand, and who cannot read all the books offered for purchase, or who cannot decide when they have read. It is in a way a combination of *Allibone* and the *Index Expurgatorius*. It would be well to keep it locked up in the trustees' desk, as a teacher locks up the key to his arithmetic or his Greek exercises: an index expurgatorius is too apt to be used by certain tastes to guide their reading in the way it should not go. But if this precaution be taken, the pamphlet may render considerable service, and there may be even a call for the publication of that "similar evidence" which Mr. Hubbard says he possesses "in regard to many other novels in the Library," and likely to be in or to be offered to our town libraries.

GLADSTONE'S IRISH POLICY SUSTAINED.

LONDON, Oct. 26, 1881.

THE most prominent object in the political horizon is again Ireland. The decided action of the Government in arresting Mr. Parnell and his associates, and in proclaiming the Land League as an illegal association, is in all men's mouths, and has thrown every other political topic into the shade. Public opinion has, with striking unanimity, backed up the Government. Not a single member of Parliament for England or Scotland who has spoken on public affairs since this new departure has, as far as I am aware, expressed disapproval of it, while a recognition that decided steps had become a regrettable necessity has come freely even from the advanced party, and from such thoroughgoing representatives of the working classes as Mr. Burt and Mr. Broadhurst. As to the Conservative party, their only complaint is that the repressive measures were not adopted sooner. Turning to the press, we find, with few exceptions, the same consensus of opinion both among the London and provincial journals. One of the exceptions is to be found—it is almost needless to say—in the *Newcastle Chronicle*; but those who followed the political vagaries of Mr. Cowen, one of the members for Newcastle, during the last few years, from his advocacy of the abandonment of Gibraltar in 1874 to his pronounced phase of Jingoism during the last Parliament, and his alliance with the Obstructionists this session, will not attach much weight to the opinions of the Newcastle paper. Another exception, more worthy of attention, is to be found in the *Statist*, a weekly paper of high repute and ability, whose utterances justly carry weight with thinking men. Apart from these few discordant notes, public opinion may be said to be practically unanimous, and there can be no doubt that the Government have been completely successful in carrying the country with them.

It may be worth while to glance for a moment at the position of the dissidents, particularly as the reasons which now weigh with them have up to the present crisis so effectually weighed with the Government as to prevent its using

to the full the powers of coercion at its command. It is obvious that the problem before us is how to reconcile the more active spirits in a great part of Ireland to the English connection, and to make them look to action in and through the united Parliament for such redress of grievances and changes in the law as they may require. Each fresh instance of exceptional treatment of Ireland by the use of exceptional powers, even though sanctioned by Parliament, leaves behind it a bitterness which must stand in the way of anything like this permanent reconciliation. And there can be no denying that they are most exceptional powers which enable the executive to imprison without trial the most prominent leaders of a popular movement, many of whom are legally elected representatives in Parliament, and who, in case of vacancies, would be re-elected again and again. The case is even worse when these measures come from the political party which has always been opposed to them in principle, has more or less denounced them when they have been adopted by the opposite party, and has proclaimed loudly its trust in remedial measures; for it must never be forgotten—though the advocates of repression habitually forget it—that the very people we are now repressing are those through whom we must ultimately govern; that in a popular system of government like ours the governed are associated with the Government in a variety of ways, in the administration of justice through the juries, in the various local bodies, and, lastly, in the Parliamentary elections; and that if we make these people irreconcilable, our chances of the country permanently settling down are hopelessly gone. Besides these objections, there is the risk of passive resistance—the risk that the advice of the Land League may be taken, and a strike against all rent carried out throughout half the country. Then we should have a state of things resembling the Tithe War, with which the military and police forces would be powerless to cope. As the *Statist* puts it: "It is quite clear that if the Irish tenants are staunch, no power on earth can compel them to pay. Of what use is it to seize crops and stock if no one will buy? Or how will it benefit landlords to evict tenants if they can neither cultivate nor let the lands?" There is also the further risk of driving the agitation inwards, and finding ourselves grappling with secret conspiracies, with their many ramifications and their policy of dynamite.

In spite of all this and a great deal more which might be urged in the same sense, I think public opinion will continue to approve the course which the Government have adopted. It is well known that no Cabinet has ever been in power which was so averse to the use of coercive measures, and so bent upon giving a full and unfettered trial to remedial measures, as the present one. If, therefore, they have finally resorted to the policy they dislike, there must, it is argued, be grave reason for it, and they must have been in possession of information which compelled them to act at once. But apart from this, it is universally felt that the Land League had long ceased to answer to the idea of a legitimate reform agitation, carried on by fair argument and persuasion, and which men were free to join or not as they pleased. The methods employed, or at least countenanced, and most certainly not repudiated, by the League, were not the methods by which such a measure as—for instance—the repeal of the corn laws was carried. Boycotting, intimidation, and outrage of all kinds were freely made use of, and the notion that he had any freedom of action left would have been ridiculed by the shopkeeper or tenant-farmer in remote districts. Besides this, it had become obvious that the ostensible objects of the League were no longer its real ones; that

while it was posing as counsellor and adviser to the farmers as to the cases they should take into court, it was really bent upon throwing discredit upon the act, and depriving tenants of their freedom to use it as they wished. That the tenants are sensible of the advantages of the act there is ample evidence. One curious fact I have on good authority: a rumor got wind that a Cabinet council was to be summoned to consider the expediency of repealing the Land Act; whereupon two hundred tenants in one place forthwith came forward and paid their rents, and my informant adds that if the rumor could have circulated a few days longer, a large number of rents would have been got in. As to passive resistance, there is no likelihood of its being adopted—the evidence is all the other way; and the distinct condemnation of this policy by so firm a friend of the League as Archbishop Croke, together with the attitude of the rest of the Roman Catholic clergy, leaves little doubt on this score. In any case the feeling is that it is better to run the risk than to continue to sanction the state of anarchy into which Ireland has fallen. The condition of things has long been felt to be a disgrace to civilization, and has deeply offended the whole neutral mass of non-politicians—those who do not profess to know much about the principles of government, but have an idea that Government should govern, and at least preserve life and property.

With the differences of opinion as to the time which the Government chose for their action, I have not troubled your readers, as it is a question which is merely a matter of party warfare. The general result I take to be that the Government will have greatly strengthened their position in the country. H.

Correspondence.

THE KING'S MISSIVE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article under the above heading, published in the last issue of the *Nation*, you refer to several letters of Rev. Dr. George E. Ellis, bearing upon the historical accuracy of certain illustrations which are inserted in the Memorial History of Boston, vol. i., in connection with the poem of Mr. Whittier.

If the article is intended as an analysis of the papers on the subject in the proceedings of the Historical Society, it is very wide of the mark. I have read those papers, as I had such of them as had been previously published in the journals.

I notice that three times in his communications Dr. Ellis tries to persuade Mr. W. to abandon the general subject of the treatment of the Quakers, which was clearly foreign to the discussion, and to concentrate his attention on the sole point of the fidelity of his poem and its illustrations to the truth on the court records.

Your article runs off largely in the same way to the general subject, and strangely enough omits all notice of the points made by Dr. Ellis, such as these:

1. The court records show that capital proceedings against the Quakers had been dropped before the arrival of the King's letter.

2. The jail delivery had taken place before that letter was received.

3. Not a single Quaker prisoner was sent by process to England in answer to the King's letter.

4. So far from being afraid lest their victims should go to England to testify against them, as Mr. W. suggests, Dr. Ellis shows from the records that the jail delivery had been made on the express agreement that they would voluntarily go to England on a vessel in the harbor.

5. There was no such jubilation meeting on the Common as pictured by Mr. W.

6. The article in the *Nation*, while printing at length the King's first letter, which is supposed to have befriended the Quakers, omits all notice of the King's second letter, quoted by Dr. Ellis, which says: "We cannot be understood to direct or wish that any indulgence should be granted to those persons commonly called Quakers, whose principles being inconsistent with any kind of government, we have found it necessary, by the advice of Parliament here, to make a sharp law against them, and are well contented that you do the like there."

The character of illiteracy or indecency in these disturbers of the old Puritans, which is discussed at some length by the writer, although abundantly established by the authorities (see as to the former the thorough presentation of the subject by Dr. Palfrey in his 'History of New England'), is not involved in the points raised by Dr. Ellis and subsequently discussed at the meeting of the Historical Society. A. B. E.

Boston, Oct. 31.

[We understood the "treatment of the Quakers" to be the real subject discussed in the 'Proceedings' of the Historical Society. The "illustrations" (known to have been imaginative) were barely alluded to by Dr. Ellis, and not once by Mr. Whittier. In the article entitled "The King's Missive," an omission to notice the points made by Dr. Ellis in his discussion with Mr. Whittier must be attributed to the circumstance that these points had not been then so clearly presented as they are now by our correspondent. We can now supply the omission.

(1.) We cannot admit that Dr. Ellis established this point. The paper which he read before the Massachusetts Historical Society contains an abstract of the law of May 22, 1661, and in saying that under that law, "for incorrigible pertinacity the penalty of death was in reserve," we quote his own words. In June sentence of death was passed upon Wenlock Christison. And surely if the capital laws, as they applied to Quakers, had been "dropped" before the arrival of the King's letter, the General Court would not have sent agents to England (as it did) to represent to the King that the suspension of the execution of the laws against Quakers "respecting death or corporal punishment" was in observance of his letter "requiring us to forbear their punishment."

(2.) The "jail delivery" insisted on by our correspondent took place in June, 1661, when the court ordered that "all the Quakers now in prison be forthwith acquainted with the new law made against them and forthwith released from prison and sent from constable to constable out of this jurisdiction, Judah Brown and Peter Peirson being, for their contempt in court, tied to the cart's tail by the executioner and whipped through Boston with twenty stripes apiece, and then sent with the rest; and if any of them be found after twelve hours within this jurisdiction, he or they shall be proceeded with according to the law made this present court." Only by a stretch of terms can this be called a "jail delivery." The order was carried out to the letter. Brown and Peirson were whipped, and all were driven out of "this jurisdiction" into the wilderness country. And afterwards, when two of the

"delivered" ones attempted to reach their home in Salem, they were stopped by Mr. Beltingham, the Deputy Governor, and sent back to prison. The order of December 9, however, following the arrival of the King's letter, called in unequivocal phrase for a "jail delivery." "You are required, by authority and order of the General Court," writes Secretary Rawson to the Boston jailer, "forthwith to release and discharge the Quakers who at present are in your custody. See that you don't neglect this."

(3.) We do not regard this as a material "point." If, at the time of the arrival of the mandamus, there were any imprisoned Quakers "condemned to suffer death or other corporal punishment," or that were "obnoxious to the like condemnation," and they were not sent over to England, then the King's command, in that regard, was not obeyed. But it does not follow that because no Quakers were sent to England, "in answer to the King's letter," no Quakers were in prison. Quakers were imprisoned for not attending Congregational meetings, and they were imprisoned for attending their own meetings, for bringing Quakers into the colony, for "entertaining" Quakers, etc., etc. They were first heavily fined for these transgressions of law (in some instances £10) and then imprisoned for non-payment of the fine. It was not required that these offenders should be sent to England.

(4.) For this "jail delivery," made on the "express agreement" that the prisoners would "voluntarily go to England," our correspondent must go back to the action of the General Court in October, 1660, when it was "judged meet to declare" that all the Quakers then in prison should have liberty to depart for England, "so as they solemnly engage, under their hands, delivered by them to the Governor or Deputy Governor, that they will not return into this jurisdiction without leave from the Council or General Court first by them obtained." For some this "jail delivery" was clearly "banishment on pain of death." Mr. Whittier's suggestion, that prisoners were not sent to England for the reason that the authorities were afraid their victims would testify against them, had reference to a state of things (created by the King's letter) not existing until more than a year after the "jail delivery" here described.

(5.) Perhaps not. The Quaker accounts represent that after the delivery of the King's letter to Governor Endicott, Captain Goldsmith's passengers came on shore, and, with their Friends of the town, had a religious meeting with praises for "this wonderful deliverance." In the absence of all evidence as to the precise place of the meeting, the poet should not be censured for locating it on the Common. And the Common was a likely-enough place for the "jubilation," inasmuch as it contained the graves of the Quaker martyrs.

(6.) The King's "second letter" bears date June 28, 1662, nearly ten months after the issue of the "first letter," which commanded the colonial authorities to "forbear to proceed any further." The permission to make a "sharp law" against the Quakers was improved by the General Court on the 8th of October, 1662, when the "gracious letter" was

read to that body and the law of May, 1661, ordered to be henceforth in force. No fact in history is clearer than this, to wit, that between the arrival of the so-called mandamus or "first letter" and the King's "second letter," the execution of the laws against Quakers (so far as those laws respected "corporal punishment or death") was absolutely suspended. If we omitted "all notice of the King's second letter," it was because that letter had no direct bearing upon "The King's Missive."

Most certainly "the character of illiteracy or indecency in these disturbers of the old Puritans" was involved in the discussion which grew out of "The King's Missive." The "indecency" of the Quakers was dwelt upon by Dr. Ellis, and Mr. Whittier occupies a page of the Historical Society's 'Proceedings' in a refutation of the charge. As to the "illiteracy" of the sect, it is Dr. Ellis who calls attention to the 'Memorial History of Boston,' where, in an article contributed by himself, "all of them" are characterized as "illiterate."—ED. NATION].

Notes.

IN January, as we are informed from Bangor, Maine, a *Q. P. Index Annual* will be published, being an index for 1881 to the periodicals already indexed by the *Q. P. I.*, as well as to *Harper's*. The *Nation's* indexing will begin at the end of the old index (Sept., 1880), and "will be minute to this extent, that names of persons mentioned in 'The Week' and 'News Summary' will be entered as often as they occur, articles being distinguished from references by the conventional sign *a*." A running foot-note on each page will serve as a key to the various other symbols. Such an *Annual* will be alike novel and serviceable to a wide circle of readers.—Mr. Benjamin Franklin Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, London, owning the stereotype plates of the late Jared Sparks's 'Works and Life of Benjamin Franklin,' in ten volumes 8vo, formerly costing \$2 50 a volume, now purposes issuing the work between Feb. 1 and the middle of June, 1882, at half the cost to the first two hundred subscribers before Dec. 20, 1881, after which date the price will be raised to \$1 50 per volume. We have given the price of the cloth binding, but other styles proposed by Mr. Stevens will cost as high as \$3, according to taste. We believe the copyright has expired on this work.—Chas. Scribner's Sons have nearly ready the 'Memoirs of Count Miot de Melito,' edited by Gen. Fleischmann. They cover the period 1788-1815, and possess an unusual degree of interest and authority.—D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish a work on 'Suicide,' by Dr. Morselli, of Turin. Colored maps will illustrate the ghastly statistics of the subject.—The Century Co. have procured an engraving to be made for their magazine for December of a mask taken from the living face of Abraham Lincoln.—'A Year of Miracle,' "a poem in four sermons," by the Rev. Wm. C. Gannett; 'Tender and True,' a collection of love poems by the editor of 'Quiet Hours'; and 'Ecce Spiritus,' are in the press of George H. Ellis, Boston. Mr. Ellis has lately put in cheap form Miss Cobbe's lectures on 'The Duties of Women,' already reviewed in the *Nation*.—A. D. F. Randolph & Co. issue immediately a Bunyan Memorial—a new edition of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' with a biographical sketch and numerous illustrations. The oak wood from which the covers are made was taken from Elston Church previous to its restoration in

1880. The same firm announce 'St. Paul's Vision,' sermons by the Rev. Eug. Bersier, the eminent Protestant preacher of Paris, translated by Miss Stewart.—An American edition of 'Through Cities and Prairie Lands,' by Lady Duffus Hardy, a book of travels in Canada and the United States, is in preparation by R. Worthington.—Robert Clarke & Co. will presently publish 'Thomas Corwin, a Sketch,' by A. P. Russell. A portrait of the Ohio statesman will accompany it.—The Minnesota Historical Society have in mind a reprint of 'Tales of the Northwest,' by William Joseph Snelling, a Boston littérateur of the last generation, for some time a resident of the present State of Minnesota. A sketch of Mr. Snelling, who had a varied career as a journalist, author, and public speaker, is to be prefixed to the work. We are glad to learn that the damage to the Society's building by the late fire is being rapidly repaired.—A. S. Barnes & Co. have issued in a very limited edition the Rev. B. F. De Costa's recent papers on Verrazano contributed to the *Magazine of American History*.—George Barrie, Philadelphia, promises 'de luce editions' of Boccaccio's 'Decameron' and 'Heptameron,' with etchings by M. Flameng; and 'Études in Modern French Art,' another holiday publication, freely illustrated with engravings.—A. R. Smith, of London, on issuing part i. of his Catalogue, announces: "Any buyers from it who think it worth preserving, on forwarding me their parts on its completion, I will bind them gratis, with Title and Index." We do not know whether English buyers are accustomed to be bound with title and index. American buyers would probably object to the proceeding, and prefer not to be bound at all.—We understand that Mr. Bernard Quaritch, of London, will almost immediately publish a volume by Mr. Charles Elton, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, author of 'The Tenures of Kent,' on 'The Origins of English History.' Notable will be the author's theory of the chronological succession and geographical distribution of the races of man in the British Islands, and his discussion of the origin of the curious custom called "Borough-English," or "Junior-right," to which a chapter is devoted. The book concludes with the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity.—Paul Lindau, it is reported, intends issuing a new weekly paper called *Die Zeit*.

—Chas. Scribner's Sons have begun a tasteful reissue of the late Dr. J. G. Holland's works, uniform in style and in price per volume. 'Gold-Foil Hammered from Popular Proverbs,' 'Bittersweet,' and 'Titcomb's Letters to Young People,' are the first to appear. They have also brought out anew Dr. Noah Porter's 'Books and Reading,' which has already passed through many editions. A new feature is the appendix of select works in a wide range of topics, specially prepared by Mr. James M. Hubbard, late of the Boston Public Library.—The solid and elegant "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's works in process of publication by G. P. Putnam's Sons now includes the 'Biographies and Miscellanies' and the first of the five volumes of the 'Life of Washington.' The same publishers announce that the original edition of Prof. M. C. Tyler's 'History of American Literature,' in two volumes, will hereafter be known as the "Bradstreet"; and at the same time they have done the general reading-public the great service of combining the two in a single volume, under the name of the "Agawam" edition, sold at a much lower price, while typographically little inferior to the "Bradstreet," and exceptionally tasteful in binding. In this latter respect, indeed, it is a model.—Admirers of Prof. Ebers's 'Uarda'—and they are by good right many—will be inte-

rested to learn that there is a fresh edition, "revised, corrected, and enlarged from the latest German." Moreover, it is authorized, though Mr. Gottsberger translates rather intensively Ebers's autograph—"Die anderen in America erschienenen Ausgaben dieser Werke sind gegen meinen Willen erschienen im Nachdrucke"—by "... are piracies issued against my wishes."—Of the new edition of Prof. J. P. Lesley's 'Man's Origin and Destiny' (Boston: Geo. H. Ellis) it is only necessary to say that the omission of the chapter on Arkism will save a good deal of respect for the author (intellectually speaking), and that in the newly-added chapters the reader will find the same cheerful dogmatism, the same discursiveness, and the same philological aberration which characterize the earlier.—With commendable punctuality the third volume of Von Holst's 'Constitutional and Political History of the United States' follows in the American translation the appearance of the original German (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). The Nation's review of this instalment of a work which every student must needs possess in its entirety, appeared in the number for April 21 (p. 280, vol. xxxii.).—An endeavor to settle the dispute as to Columbus's landfall has led to the curious "Notes on the Historical Hydrography of the Handkerchief Shoal in the Bahamas," by Wm. H. Tillinghast, which form No. 14 of the Bibliographical Notes of the Library of Harvard University.—The October number of the *Portfolio* is noticeable for an etching, in red-chalk fashion, produced by a new French mechanical process, in which the drawing is made with a black lead-pencil on a piece of finely-ground plate glass, which then serves as a negative to the sensitized copper below. Biting does the rest. What is singular is that the lines thus produced are not obviously granulated.—Brehm's 'Thierleben' is about to be reissued in an edition with colored plates besides the usual woodcuts in the text. Extraordinary pains have been taken to give a highly authentic character to these plates, of which one or two will accompany each of the 140 parts contemplated. The cost per part will be, in this country, 36 cents, post-paid. B. Westermann & Co. have received No. 1 (of Birds), whose two chromolithographs give a favorable idea of the execution of this part of Brehm's standard work.—Eight of the ten colored lithographic plates in part iv. of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.) exhibit specimens of Peruvian art in the manufacture of cloth. They reinforce the impression already made by previous plates of the remarkable progress in design and color attained by this South American people. Many of them are described in the text as in the "Gobelins style," which is true in more than a textile sense. The patterns are still prevaillingly borrowed from the human figure, and show by grotesque transitions the connection between this and forms which, taken by themselves, would be regarded as purely conventional. Some of the borders are quite Greek in appearance.

—The scientific notes of the current Harvard Bulletin (No. 20) confirm the report that the Mammoth Cave is to be used for the propagation of mushrooms; but probably only a part of "Audubon Avenue" will be used for the purpose, and this will take away nothing from the charm of the cave, as the avenue is not included in any of the regular routes of visitors, and there is nothing of special interest to be seen in this part of the cave. Mr. Francis Klett is the present superintendent of the more than one hundred and fifty miles of subterranean passages and chambers, and is now making a scientific survey of the cave. Mr. Klett was for-

merly an assistant with Lieut. Wheeler on the Government surveys west of the 100th meridian, and is said to be fully competent for the work. New chambers and passages are occasionally opened to visitors, and two beautiful little chambers leading off from a new avenue have been named for Mr. H. C. Hovey and Mr. F. W. Putnam, both of whom have a reputation in connection with researches in the cave. Mr. Putnam's special work in relation to the geology of this and other caves was in 1873, when he was connected with the geological survey of Kentucky under Prof. Shaler. He then spent ten days in a thorough exploration of the waters of the cave. Mr. M. E. Wadsworth has a note on the "Trachyte of Marblehead Neck," which goes to refute a theory of the formation of Marblehead Harbor developed by Mr. W. O. Crosby. The astronomical note says that six comets have been observed the present year, and remarks that an interesting analogy between the spectra of comets and stars is very much strengthened by the spectrum of comet b, the great one which appeared towards the end of June. We observe with interest that a lady graduate of Smith College, who had applied for admission to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, received the reply that "the Corporation are not prepared to admit women as candidates for a degree." This seems to imply that the Corporation have the authority and power when they are so minded.

—The topic of most universal interest in the latest report of the Massachusetts Board of Health is intermittent fever. Concerning the progress and extent of this comparatively new disease in Massachusetts a great mass of information is given in a paper by Dr. J. F. Alleyne Adams, of Pittsfield. The salient facts are, that outbreaks of the fever have occurred at intervals of a generation in the towns lying along the Housatonic and Connecticut rivers; viz., between 1793 and 1799, in 1836, and in 1870; that the latest formed part of a visitation which Connecticut received by way of New York in 1850, so that the fever was twenty years in crossing this narrow State; that in the past ten years it has reached North Adams and Greenfield, Mass., but has not crossed the border into Vermont or New Hampshire; that it is of very infrequent occurrence in the eastern part of Massachusetts; that it is usually associated with water courses or bodies of water subject to fluctuations of level; and that its intensity corresponds measurably to low stages of water caused by drought. It is also clear that however favorable may be the local conditions, there is a something imported (from the south) which has made them fever-producing now and not prior to 1870. That something has apparently come to stay, however much it may be guarded against and its effects limited by drainage and prudence in the use of drinking water. The growth of population has, to our mind, been the least factor in the problem; the growth of manufactures, by multiplying dams and overflows (as in the recent Lenox outbreak), has created or intensified the necessary conditions; but in all probability cosmic influences, assimilating these northern latitudes to the southern haunts of malarial disease, are chiefly responsible for the disagreeable invasion of Connecticut and Massachusetts. Whether the drying up of the earth is going on apace, or whether we are merely in the middle of a droughty cycle, as some of our local meteorologists think, we may safely throw the blame on the spotty luminary whose activity is now the object of so much scientific scrutiny.

—The memory of a painstaking and intelligent lexicographer, the late William A. Wheeler, is pleasantly revived in a little volume called

'Who Wrote It?' just published by Lee & Shepard. None of the readers' handbooks that have appeared of late years has quite the scope of this, which is pretty strictly confined to the implication of its title. It reverses the order of author-dictionaries, scattering the works of Dickens, Scott, Reade, and Cooper—to take examples in one field of literature—under their respective alphabets, with the author's name subjoined in every case, and the term of his life in brackets. The analysis is carried still further when we find the "Nonne Prest his Tale," the "Knights Tale," etc., with references to the "Canterbury Tales"; and yet further, when "Houyhnhms" is made a catch-word for "Gulliver." In like manner, "Ring out, wild bells" leads up to "In Memoriam," and first lines of famous poems nameless like sonnets are entered in their proper places. A chance catalogue of titles will best display the compiler's method and comprehensiveness:—Anabasis, Andromaque, Anti-Jacobin, Country Parson (Recreations of a), "Cromwell, our chief of men," Demi-Monde (Dumas's), Émile, Fors Clavigera, Frogs (of Aristophanes), Gerusalemme Liberata, Gesta Romanorum, Imitation of Christ, Land of Cockayne, Lillibullero, Mare Liberum (Grotius's), Margaret (Judd's), Martinus Scriblerus, Namouna (De Musset's), Nasby Papers, Nibelungen Lied, Niccolò di Lapi, Œdipus Coloneus, Ozymandias, Panchatantra, Pandects, Sam Slick, Subjection of Women, Vicar of Bray, "Woodman, spare that tree," Xenien, Yankee Doodle. Mother Goose is not overlooked, but the present editor, Mr. Chas. G. Wheeler, would have been justified in omitting the exploded Boston theory of Elizabeth Vergoose, of which his brother was the earliest partisan. So, if we were to have 'Middlemarch' and 'Daniel Deronda' added to Mr. Wheeler's posthumous MS., we might have expected some of Turgeneff's masterpieces of even or of earlier date to have been admitted. But completeness is not claimed for this little "conversation lexicon." The work is made interesting by foot-notes like those of Allibone, quoting the judgments of critics, and no pains have been spared to open up the contents by the aid of cross references. Examination reveals a surprisingly large number of topics, considering the compactness of the volume.

—"Goody Two-shoes," says Mr. Wheeler, is ascribed to Oliver Goldsmith. Readers of the London *Athenæum* will have noticed lately the controversy on this subject growing out of a communication to that journal from Mr. Charles Welsh, who takes the same view of the authorship, and enforces it with the opinions of others as well as with some probable arguments of his own. Mr. Giles Jones, grandfather of the late Mr. Winter Jones, of the British Museum, is a rival claimant through his posterity, on grounds neither very precise nor very weighty. However, it has pleased Messrs. Griffith & Farran, successors at the old stand in St. Paul's Churchyard of J. Newbery, the publisher of "Goody Two-shoes" and of numerous other classical children's books, some positively identified with Goldsmith, to publish a fac-simile of the third edition (of 1766), which is substantially that of 1763. Mr. Welsh has prefixed to the reprint the gist of his *Athenæum* article and of the controversy, and has done so in a spirit at once frank and free from dogmatism. The result is a typographical gem, well fitted to be a gift to children, both for its contents, and as a sample of the printer's and engraver's art in pre-Bewickian days, while their elders will prize it as a near equivalent to the rare original.

—The fiftieth volume of the 'Journal of the Royal Geographical Society,' recently issued, completes the series. Hereafter the 'Proceed-

ings,' published monthly, will take its place as the Society's principal publication, though supplementary volumes containing "elaborate papers of more than ordinary length and great value" will occasionally be issued. The first and by far the most important article is on "The Fifty Years' Work of the Royal Geographical Society," by the secretary, C. R. Markham. Beginning with a reference to the work of the early English geographers, Eden, Hakluyt, Purchas, and Hexham, he sketches the geographical work of the Royal Society and the African Association founded by Sir Joseph Banks in 1788. "The first person who was selected for employment by the Association was Mr. Ledyard, an American by birth." There follows an interesting account of the Raleigh Club, out of whose meetings grew the present Society. Its chief object was and still is, under the name of the Geographical Club, a dinner to which members were invited "to present any scarce foreign game, fish, fruits, wines, etc., as a means of adding greatly to the interest of the dinners, not merely from the objects of luxury thus afforded, but also for the observations they will be the means of giving rise to." On the table at the first dinner were a "haunch of reindeer venison from Spitzbergen, a jar of Swedish brandy, rye cake baked near the North Cape, a Norway cheese, and preserved cloud-berries from Lapland." Several chapters are devoted to brief sketches of the presidents and secretaries, and more detailed accounts of the travels of those persons who have received the Society's medals or been assisted by grants of money. Among the recipients of the gold medal, the gift of the English Crown "for the encouragement and promotion of geographical science and discovery," are the names of seven Americans—namely, the Rev. Dr. E. Robinson, of New York, for his 'Biblical Researches in Palestine'; Com. Wilkes, Gen. Fremont, Dr. Kane, Prof. Bache, Dr. Hayes, and H. M. Stanley. Two women, Lady Franklin and Mary Somerville, have also received the gold medal. The article concludes with a most interesting, though very brief, "Comparative View of Geographical Knowledge in 1830 and 1880, with a Notice of the Work that still Remains to Be Done." The original object of the Society—the collection and publication of interesting geographical facts and discoveries, the formation of a library, and the assisting of explorers—remains unchanged, though the sphere of its labors has been somewhat broadened. In 1869 it established an annual examination, open to the pupils of the public schools, on certain geographical subjects, each to be treated either in its physical or political relations; and two medals are given to the best competitors in both departments. More recently medals have been awarded to the scholars who have received the highest marks in geography in the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations. The subjects for the years 1880-82 were Western Africa, Polynesia, and Australia. Two years ago a school of instruction in "nearly all the problems in practical astronomy and surveying" was opened for intending travellers. This appears to have been highly successful, the students having included "civil engineers, naval and military officers, surgeons, magistrates, botanists, missionaries, and one bishop." An appendix to Mr. Markham's article gives various lists of officers, explorers, papers, and maps published in the 'Journal' and 'Proceedings,' etc. The largest single grant of money made by the Society was £1,778, in 1874, for the "Livingstone search and relief fund," though £2,500 in all was contributed to the expedition of Lieut. Cameron for the same end.

—The September number of the *Antiquary* (J. W. Bouton) contains two short articles upon

points of great interest connected with the primitive tenure of land in village communities. Mr. Gomme, author of 'Primitive Folkmoths,' gives an account of some peculiar usages in different parts of Scotland, illustrating the customs of the burgh of Lauder, described by Sir Henry Maine in his 'Village Communities' (p. 95). None of them are so complete as those of Lauder, but, taken separately, they afford examples of the arable mark cultivated under rules prescribed by the town council (in the "birley" court, in which each proprietor of a "freedom" had a vote); of the assignment of parcels in this area by lot; and of the right to land for tillage being connected with the ownership of plots of land in the town. The other article is by Mr. Fenton, whose 'Early Hebrew Life' was reviewed not long ago in the *Nation* (Sept. 8). His article is upon the "right of pre-emption," by which the members of these communities had the first right to purchase land that was offered for sale, and thus to prevent the land from passing into the hands of strangers. Mr. Fenton traces this right, in an attenuated form, in the Mohammedan law (where it is confined to actual partners), in the Talmudic law (where it is extended to the owners of adjoining land), in Orissa, and even in ancient Assyria. In the last two cases the primitive rights are recognized to a certain extent as existing, but are prevented from asserting themselves by special prohibitions and penalties. The survivals of the village-community system in New England are traced in two interesting papers by Dr. H. B. Adams, of the Johns Hopkins University, read by him this last summer at public meetings in Salem and Stockbridge, and printed in the local newspapers. In these papers he describes, with some detail, some remarkable instances of community in land still surviving in Sandwich and Salem, and one or two other places, quite similar to that described in the *Nation* of Jan. 10, 1878, as existing in the island of Nantucket. Dr. Adams has for several years been engaged in investigating this subject, and has found material for a volume which he hopes soon to publish.

—The production of the "Verwunschene Schloss" ("The Haunted Castle") at the Thalia Theatre last Thursday was a great success. Carl Millöcker, the composer, may be said to be absolutely unknown in New York, and the score is in some respects a musical novelty, for it aims at introducing, in a somewhat humorous contrast, the peasant melodies of the Tyrolean Alps with the waltz and operatic music of what may be called the aristocratic type. This contrast is carried out in the drama, in which we follow the adventures of two peasants, who find their way to a castle, supposed to be haunted, but really tenanted by ladies and gentlemen of a very old theatrical school, who, while masquerading as spirits for the benefit of the inhabitants of the plain below, are really devoting their energies to getting as much as possible out of life in the way of dancing, drinking and love-making. The chief lady among these revellers is *Coralie* (Fr. Seebold). She sings with great spirit, and her voice, which has a remarkable range, was in excellent condition. She was encored again and again; her acting was very nearly as good as the singing, and as the part is only second in importance to that of *Regerl*, taken by Marie Geistingner, the hit made by the opera may be put down in great measure to her credit. As *Regerl*, Geistingner displayed once more her extraordinary versatility, and showed at the same time how much better adapted to her are German types than those of the French stage, in which she seems to us never more than half at home. *Regerl* is a buxom—very buxom—country wench, ignorant, superstitious, coarse, and good-

humored, in love with *Andredl*, who is the corresponding male type. The parts of these characters and of *Regerl*, as well as *Sepp* (very weakly and ill sung by Herr Walter) are in patois, and, of course, replete with humor. Herr Klein as *Andredl* showed himself to be a thoroughly competent actor; and while his singing is not remarkable, the fun which he managed to infuse into everything he did would have carried him through with a much worse voice. His sleeping song, during which the infatuated *Regerl* watches him, and explains to the audience the contortions of his countenance and the writhing of his limbs as being due to the fact that he is "dreaming about the angels in heaven," was a masterpiece. The song, however, which was perhaps most perfect in its way was *Regerl's* in the fourth act, each verse ending with the refrain, now naively, now slyly, now broadly comical:

'S is a bisserl Liab und a bisserl Tren
Und a ganz kloan's bisserl—Falscheit dabel.

The theatre was crowded and the audience greatly amused and pleased from first to last. A visit to the Thalia now is a visit to Germany itself. No attempt, apparently, is made to attract Americans. No libretto or programme in two languages makes its appearance, and very few but Germans are to be seen in the house. The theatre is one of the best for seeing and hearing in this city, and to enjoy such an operetta as the "Verwunschene Schloss," very little knowledge of German is required. By those who care for musical ingenuity and inventiveness the contrasts introduced by the composer will be found entertaining and novel.

—A large audience assembled at the Academy of Music on Friday night to hear Rossini's "Barber of Seville," an opera which at the present day requires the united efforts of half a dozen good artists to make us understand how it ever could have attained its former popularity. There is an abundance of lively rhythm in it, but this rhythm is usually of a purely mechanical description and very superficial, owing to the absence of varied harmonies and the scarcity of good melodies. Indeed, the opera would long since have disappeared from the stage were it not for the fact that the plot is rather interesting, and affords opportunities for some good comic acting. These opportunities were not neglected, and the result was that Friday's performance was perhaps the most satisfactory of the present season. Signor Del Puente is perhaps as good a *Figaro* as walks the stage, and he was ably seconded in his efforts to bring out the funny points by Signor Corsini (*Dr. Bartolo*) and Signor Novara (*Don Basilio*). Signor Ravelli's *Conte Almaviva* was also acceptable in every respect, and if we add that the orchestra and chorus were equal to their work, we shall have omitted only one of the features that contributed to the success of the performance. This feature was the debut in this country of Mlle. Vachot, a young lady of twenty-one years, who has already sung with success in Brussels, Paris, and other French cities. She is of medium size, light, graceful, and rather pretty, her features being characterized by that intellectual charm and brightness which among French ladies usually take the place of the highest physical beauty, and which make it so comparatively easy for them to become good actresses. Thus equipped for her task, Mlle. Vachot could not fail to be received with applause on first coming on the stage, although there could hardly have been half a dozen people present who had heard her before. But everybody felt instinctively as she came forward that she would at least prove a vivacious actress, and this counts for more in the "Barber of Seville" than in most Italian operas. On Mlle. Vachot's

singing we cannot bestow the same unqualified praise as on her acting. Her voice is naturally pure and sweet, although not powerful; but its purity and sweetness are too often marred by the *vibrato*, which she owes to the method of her teachers, and which she will have to overcome before she can claim the name of a great vocalist. Nor is her intonation always as correct as it should be—a peculiarity which is revealed less in the florid passages, which she sings with agility and no great apparent effort, than in cantabile passages. We admit that these faults are not very serious in her case, and can be easily overcome by one so young and intelligent as Mlle. Vachot; but as long as they exist they must be pointed out, not only because nothing is so injurious to a young artist as injudicious and exaggerated praise, but because a few years later it will be too late to overcome faults which at present can be easily remedied. Mlle. Vachot, we must add, received some very tasteful floral tributes and much applause throughout the evening; and everybody will now be anxious to hear and make her acquaintance in some other rôles.

—The first half of the second volume of Herr Robert Prölfs's '*Geschichte des neueren Dramas*' (Leipzig: Bernard Schlicke; New York: F. W. Christern), filling five hundred pages, is devoted to the history of the French drama from its origin to the present time. Herr Prölfs first describes the awakening of the national spirit and the beginnings of the drama in France, and then takes up Corneille, Racine, and the other tragedians, and Molière and his rivals and followers; next he gives an account of the rise of French opera, and finally, in three chapters, he considers comedy and tragedy up to the beginning of this century. In the chapter on "Tragedy in the Nineteenth Century," he discusses the works of Hugo and the elder Dumas, and in another chapter, rather hastily, the comic dramatists of the present time—or rather all the dramatists who are not tragic; and he concludes with a glance at the chief actors and actresses of the past hundred years. The book is useful, in a way, and is not ill done, but it is very unequal. The chapters on Corneille and Molière are by far the best. The account of their successive plays is intelligent, and shows a use of much of the material recently brought to light. The author's weak point is his criticism of the contemporary drama. Herr Prölfs writes a little as though he had only read about the plays of which he treats, without having ever seen any of them acted, or having even read the most of them. He looks at plays, in short, from a literary point of view, and not from a dramatic. It is this want of familiarity with the actual characteristics of contemporary French dramatists which allows him (p. 473) to attribute M. Labiche's amusing farce, "*Le Chapeau de paille d'Italie*" to M. Sardou, and to say (p. 468) that it was a play of Mme. de Girardin's, instead of M. de Girardin's, which M. Alexandre Dumas, *filz*, worked over into the "*Supplice d'une Femme*." This same lack of acquaintance with the details of modern dramatic lore lets Herr Prölfs call Casimir Delavigne's "*Comédiens*" the "*Comédiennes*," and M. Denery's "*Bohémiens de Paris*" the "*Bohémiennes de Paris*," and the elder Dumas's "*Madame de Chamblay*" "*Mlle. de Chamblay*." These, of course, are trifles, but they tend to show how imperfect is Herr Prölfs's familiarity with recent French drama.

—The rapidity with which our foreign elements are assimilated and Americanized, while contributing to our political strength, is perhaps to be regretted from a purely literary point of view. In spite of some notable exceptions, our German brethren, considering their number and importance, have done little to enrich the lit-

rary treasure of their fatherland, or, indeed, to assert their nationality in the domains of science. Francis Lieber, among others, wrote exclusively in English, after having made America his home. Of late, however, there have been indications of an increased intellectual activity on the part of our German population as such. Thus the project of a great German university in the West, so eloquently fathered by Bodenstein, has found in this country interested advocates. German periodicals are everywhere multiplying, and within the past few weeks we have received four specimens of the literary work of German-Americans. Of these, the *Wissenschaftliche Wochenblätter*, published by Chr. Schmidt, New York, is the most important. It is an illustrated weekly, of respectable appearance, devoted to science in its widest range, as is evident from the contents of the first two numbers. Thus far speculative and economic topics seem to predominate, but there is a liberal supply of miscellaneous matter on technical and hygienic subjects, culled mainly from European periodicals. In fact, in spite of the large number of domestic writers whose co-operation is expected—we may mention among them Prof. Wm. Grauert, Gustav Körner, Dr. A. Douai, Judge Stallo, etc.—it is evident that the new weekly will have to rely for its value chiefly on European sources. The most prominent scientists of Germany are thus to be "represented," among whom the prospectus mentions—we presume inadvertently—the botanist Schleiden (lately deceased), and the essayist Bogumil Goltz, who has been dead these ten years, and whose right to appear in a scientific publication might at any time have been questioned. The series of illustrated biographies of scientists, begun in the second number with Lieut. Wheeler, does not open auspiciously either as regards text or illustrations.

—The contributor of the article, "Ueber die volkswirtschaftlichen Fragen in den Vereinigten Staaten" (on economic questions in the United States), Mr. J. Schoenhof, is also the author of the pamphlet before us entitled "*Deutsche Urtheile über Amerika*" (German opinions concerning America), published as No. 156 of the well-known Holtzendorff series of "*Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen*." It is a lively protest against the ignorance of American institutions still prevailing in Germany, and more particularly against the atrocious misstatements of Friedrich von Hellwald, whose "*Culturgeschichte*," in so far as it treats of the United States, has never met with the condemnation it deserves. The subject of the misconceptions of German journals in regard to this country was discussed in our columns some time ago; we cannot say that the increased attention recently bestowed on American affairs has revealed any decided improvement. Thus, even so well-informed and able a journal as the *Vienna Neue Freie Presse* persists in speaking of the German parentage of President Garfield, and holds the Stalwarts, as led by Conkling and "Merrytt," responsible for the promulgation of the doctrine, "To the victor belong the spoils."

—"*Klänge aus vergangenen Zeiten*" (echoes of the past), by Philipp Wagner (New York: L. W. Schmidt), is a slender volume of verses, some of which, such as "*Quantität und Qualität*" and "*Stille Lieder*," are of more than average smoothness, and breathe the patriotic fervor which probably led to the author's "banishment," of which he speaks in the preface. He looks back upon seventy years of a life of hardship and disappointments. The songs wrung from the heart of the exile by the unstilled longing for his fatherland are seldom heard here—a fact suggestive of the prosperity which gene-

rally awaits the German transplanted to these shores. The decided poetic ability possessed by half a dozen German-Americans whom we might mention spends itself in occasional trifles and humorous productions, such as Asmus's clever "*Skizzenbüchle*." Even the grandeur and diversity of American scenery, so powerfully felt by a Lenau, and so quickly seized by Bodenstein, fails to rouse our German friends to more serious efforts.

—"*Studien und Plaudereien im Vaterland*" (studies and talks in the fatherland), second series, by Sigmon M. Stern and Menno Stern (New York: Henry Holt & Co.), though intended merely as a German reader and help to teachers, invites criticism as a literary performance from the fact that the authors have composed all the matter contained in the volume excepting a few appended poems. Their plan of teaching by conversation is the most comprehensive we have ever heard of: "All there is in this world worth being thought of or spoken about, all that is great, good, and beautiful, we draw into the circle of our studies"; and we must say they are as good as their word, for in the "*Studies and Talks*" Alexander the Great and Lessing, a prose version of "Reinecke Fuchs" and an apotheosis of Bismarck, old anecdotes and the Bible, and heaven and earth in general, follow each other in uninterrupted and startling succession.

A NOVEL OF THE REBELLION.

The Bloody Chasm: a Novel. By J. W. De Forest. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

THE difficulties which beset the producer of American fiction are made even more distinct by the successes than by the many failures with which his path is strewn. To any one not familiar with them, the scene, time, and characters selected by Mr. De Forest would seem singularly well adapted for the novelist's purpose. The scene is laid partly amid the ruins of Charleston at the close of the war, and partly in the American colony at Paris; the heroine and hero are Miss Beaufort, the last survivor of an old South Carolinian family cut to pieces in the war, and a Northern officer who marries her. The period, though it only carries us back fifteen years in time, is already removed from us in thought and feeling by a generation; the vast social changes that have taken place since the surrender of Lee have made the old South, even to a greater degree than the old North, already belong to the past, so that it would seem as if slavery, the war, the freeing of the blacks, and the final and overwhelming victory of the North would already be immersed in the soft legendary light so well adapted to fiction and romance. Yet no one can read Mr. De Forest's book without perceiving that for some reason there is wanting that illusion both in the characters and in the story which is as necessary in a novel as in a play for complete success.

The story opens with the appearance in Charleston of Mr. Silas Mather, a rich Bostonian and old-fashioned Puritan, with a strong detestation of the South, as being responsible for slavery and the war, and also of the Catholic Church. In early life he married a Southern woman, and has come to the South to look up his wife's relations. He is a stern old gentleman, though kind at heart, and, as a Northern type of the time, perhaps not an impossible creation. It was a good idea, too, to introduce him in Charleston at the close of the war, moralizing among the ruins over the doom of slavery and treason and unprovoked rebellion. The following is the account given of Mr. Mather's first interview with a former acquaintance, General Hilton, of the Rebel army:

"He ended his soliloquy because he became conscious that some one had overtaken and was slowly passing him. Glancing sidelong, he noted that the person was evidently a Southerner—a superbly tall and stalwart man, of middle age, with a grave and almost grim aquiline countenance, and an air of dignity which contrasted strangely with his seedy suit of gray homespun. Mr. Mather looked carelessly at the worn face; then he suddenly leaned forward to peer at it eagerly; then he made an effort to get abreast of the stranger. Touching him gently on the arm, he said, in a clear, hard, emphatic voice: 'As I was saying, sir, it can't be done.'

"Both men halted and gazed at each other in silence. The Southerner had an air of non-recognition and of amazement. After a moment he remarked in a deep, mellow bass, and with a singularly collected and courteous demeanor, considering the oddness of the situation: 'I beg your pardon, sir. You have the advantage of me. I really beg your pardon, sir.'

"'Four years ago,' said Mather slowly, 'in my office in Boston I told you it could not be done.'

"'Boston? Your office?' queried the other. 'Oh! God bless my soul! Is it—' 'Is it Mr. Mather? God bless my soul! I remember you now.'

"'And our conversation?' insisted the Northerner.

"'God bless me! I had forgotten it. I recollect it now,' admitted the Carolinian with a faint smile. 'What a memory you have! Yes, I recall it. I said that the South would go out, and you said—'

"'That it could not be done.'

"'I see it can't,' bowed the Southerner. He laughed, but not blithely, and then shook his head very sadly. 'We did our best,' he added.

"'Or worst.'

"'Oh! sir, you are victors.' This was uttered with a sigh. 'You have the right to exult. I would simply ask, my dear sir, is it magnanimous?'

Mr. Mather finds in Charleston, as the only survivor of his wife's family, his niece, Miss Virginia Beaufort, who, reduced to the last stages of poverty, is living in a sort of hovel with the faithful Aunt Chloe and Uncle Phil, and gaining a precarious livelihood by washing and ironing. Mr. Mather also has a Northern nephew, who has served in the Union army through the war, and is infatuated with a poor Catholic girl. The uncle is determined to break off the match, and in order to do so conceives the idea of making a marriage between him and Miss Beaufort. Miss Beaufort, however, is a type of the unreconstructed Southern woman; having lost in the Rebellion friends, family, and home and country, she is embittered against everything Northern with a bitterness which no man could ever dream of feeling against anything. Northern money (of which Mr. Mather has plenty); Northern hospitality; Northern friendship; Northern affection; and, most of all, Northern love, are all odious to her, and there is naturally some difficulty in bringing about a marriage. Finally, when she does consent to it, after Mr. Mather's death, it is only on condition of an immediate separation. She is to go through the ceremony, and then see her husband no more. Young Underhill, meantime, gets over his interest in Miss Norah MacMorran, and falls in love with his wife, and determines that in the end she shall be his wife in fact as well as in name. For this purpose the scene changes to Paris, where Underhill appears slightly disguised as Col. Peyton, a Virginian and ex-rebel. His wife had never seen him but once, when the marriage ceremony was performed, and then only in a half-lighted church, so that she is not at all familiar with his face. The effect of her life in Paris is to soften the bitterness of her heart, and to make her take less interest in the past and its tragic memories, and more in the present, and all the pleasant things it gives her. She is known in Paris by her maiden name, and she soon falls in love with Col. Peyton. The end can easily be guessed. She sees a horrible abyss opening before her, and resolves to save herself. The protection of her husband and her husband's

name has become a necessity, and as she grows interested in Col. Peyton the impossibility of keeping up her false mode of life becomes more and more apparent. Finally, the crisis comes when he tells her that he loves her, and she, in an agony, informs him that she is married. Of course he now reveals himself in his true character, and the curtain falls upon a reunited and happy couple.

It will be seen that the tale does not make any severe drafts upon the reader's credulity. Neither the situations nor the *dénouement* are out of nature. The disguise of the hero as Col. Peyton is perhaps a little theatrical—in fact, the whole story could be made into a play without much difficulty—but the circumstances of the marriage are so peculiar as to bring this feature of it quite within the bounds of possibility. Yet, when all this is admitted, 'The Bloody Chasm' can hardly be accepted as the typical American novel for which we have been so long looking. We fear, as we suggested at the outset, that the difficulties are inherent in the subject. Though the period which separates the present time from that of the close of the war seems enormous, it has not as a matter of fact made the events of that time romantic to us. The only people who ever succeeded in extracting much romance from the struggle were the English Conservatives, who, knowing little or nothing about any part of the country, conceived the idea that the South was the home of chivalry and feudalism; that negro slavery was a patriarchal institution which greatly conduced to the happiness of both races; that the Southerners were all gentlemen and ladies, who were being invaded by a barbarous horde of bricklayers and hod-carriers. Of course it was only natural that the South should like to keep up this feeling as long as possible, and it was possible just as long as its peculiar institutions shut it off from the rest of the world, and kept it unexplored and unknown except by a few travellers who saw nothing of it beyond the lavish hospitality which the great slave-owners dispensed. So far as the North, and all the rest of the world outside of what may remain of foreign Southern "sympathizers" are concerned, these illusions have been supplanted by a totally different feeling. It is impossible now for us to think of the old South except as a provincial community, with barbarous institutions, without literature and without art, and, worse than all, filled with a provincial self-satisfaction the recollection of which is only laughable. No doubt this feeling has been exaggerated. We are all one people, and it is unlikely that any of the vices which the war revealed in the South had not their counterparts in the North. But, however that may be, the old romance about the South which found expression in such literary products as the 'Octoroon,' and which to a certain extent pervades even such an anti-Southern book as 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' is completely dissipated, and we doubt if it is in the power of any novelist to revive it. Miss Virginia Beaufort is a romantic character; yet even Miss Beaufort represents the type of "unreconstructed rebel" in which we are most inclined to detect a ludicrous combination of tragic affectation with repellant insolence. In fact, all Southern types had assumed, towards the close of the war—partly through the mere effect of disillusion, and from the very fact that we had once believed in their reality—a comic aspect. The "first families," the "high-toned Southern gentleman," the Southern "chivalry," had become every-day jests and by-words. The country has never got over this, and we fear, to the lasting loss of romantic literature, never will.

Mr. De Forest will perhaps say in reply to all this that he does not call 'The Bloody

Chasm' a romance, but a novel. But it makes no difference what it is called. The materials, or most of them, are used in a romantic manner; the sentiments and incidents are not those of every-day life, and the general effect produced is that of romantic motive. It sometimes seems as if there were no solid ground for the American writer of fiction in the present day and generation, except the consciously humorous. Who has written an American novel as to which there is any common agreement that it is an actual representation of American life, except Howells, whose pictures of it are always half humorous, even when most serious? 'Democracy,' which, to our mind, is by far the best of all recent attempts, produces an effect of unreality. Hawthorne, by dint of cutting himself loose from the American life of his own day and taking his characters from the past, or from the no-man's-land of his mind, succeeded in writing American romances, and the love of romance is so deep-seated in the human mind that it would perhaps still be possible for an American to write romance in the same way; but in writing fiction of any other kind he really comes in conflict with a formidable rival whose power is continually on the increase. The picture which each one of us gets of the life of to-day is furnished by the newspaper. It is realistic, bald, and at the same time consciously comic. The American novelist, if he alters the lines or colors of this picture much, excites revolt in our minds; if he attempts to stick closely to it, he finds it very difficult to keep out of a quagmire of vulgarity and commonplace in which fiction must always be swamped. Humor is his only resource; but to be humorous and a novelist is not given to every one. We ought to say, in conclusion, that Mr. De Forest shows in Aunt Chloe that he has substantial resources in the way of humor on which he would do wisely, in our opinion, to draw more liberally.

GARDINER'S ENGLISH HISTORIES.

English History for Students: Being the Introduction to the Study of English History. By Samuel R. Gardiner. With a Critical and Biographical Account of Authorities, by J. Bass Mullinger. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 424.

English History for Young Folks. B.C. 55—A.D. 1880. By S. R. Gardiner. Edition revised for American Students. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. Small 8vo, pp. 457.

THESE two books may very well be considered together, as they proceed from the same pen, and appear to belong to one plan. The history "for young folks" must not be understood to be a child's book. It is written in a sober, rather dry style, with very little grace of narrative, but with a masterly power of condensation, and a clear understanding of just what it is, in the history of England, that young people most need to know. Being the work of a man who is confessedly the highest living authority on one period—and that perhaps the most important—of English history, and second to none in his familiarity with the whole field, it is a work of the greatest value. Children will not be attracted by it, but young students will find in it just what they need, and even mature scholars will be glad to consult it, in order to know the opinions and conclusions of a master.

We have said that the two books appear to form part of one plan. At any rate they supplement one another admirably. The other volume, the 'Introduction,' is designed "to provide some help for students who, having gone through the ordinary school course, wish to devote themselves to the special study of some part of the

history of England." For such a person we cannot help thinking that the smaller book will serve as a very convenient aid, containing an excellent compendium of facts, which the student may consult before taking up the larger work. The assistance for special students contained in the 'History for Students' is naturally of two kinds—a list of authorities, and a guide to their use; Mr. Gardiner has prepared the former, Mr. Mullinger the latter. Of Mr. Mullinger's part of the work, which Mr. Gardiner pronounces "the kernel of the volume," we need say very little. It commends itself. Every student, especially of modern history, knows how bewildering is the mass of authorities to be consulted, and how difficult it is to find a safe guide to what is best and most trustworthy. Within his brief limits Mr. Mullinger has done this as well as could be desired. Mr. Gardiner's work, in the "Introduction" proper (of one hundred and ninety-nine pages), is less easy to characterize. It may perhaps be best described, in his own words, as "an attempt to trace the life of the English nation by one who has at all events given much of his time and thought in an attempt to realize to himself what that life has been." It is discursive in its nature, an analysis, in successive chronological divisions, of the forces and influences at work in forming the English nation and bringing it to its present condition. Of course a discussion of this sort—itsself the fruit of long study—can only be understood and appreciated after long study. The student who approaches this work from the school-study of history will get hints and suggestions for his special period; but he will only realize its value when he comes back to it at the close of his special investigation, and reads it again in the light of his now more complete and accurate knowledge. Indeed, designed though it be as a guide to study, in order to assist in tracing the chain of cause and effect, and comprehending the relations of some one age to what came before and what came after, its chief value, after all, will be for those who have already accomplished these special studies, or read largely upon the several periods of English history.

It consists of eleven chapters—the first upon "The Ancient World," the others dividing the history of England into ten chronological periods. As might be expected from the special reputation of the writer, the treatise increases in interest until its culmination in the history of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The political history of England in modern times is sketched with power and with an unequalled fulness of knowledge. Nothing could be fairer or better than the analysis of the English Reformation, with its results as traced down to the great contest of the seventeenth century. We are surprised, however, to find hardly anything upon the social history, which was never a factor of more importance than just at this period. The abolition of serfdom is fairly dwelt upon in the earlier chapters, where the view given is essentially the same as that of Mr. Rogers and Mr. Seebohm; but the effects of this in building up the great landed aristocracy of England, the divorce of the peasantry from the land, the wonderful industrial development of the sixteenth century, and the influence of this in these events upon the struggle against the Stuarts—these topics are not entirely neglected, but they do not receive an amount of attention proportioned to their influence in bringing into existence the England of the nineteenth century. The same remark applies to more recent times, and the book must be pronounced imperfect from this point of view.

It will be urged—and we agree to it heartily—that political history should come first; that

this is the indispensable foundation of all historical study. In truth, the chapters on "manners and customs" in some modern histories are dreary and unedifying reading; and the attempt to trace the life of a people without distinct and constant reference to the life of the nation results only in vagueness and confusion. An exact chronology is the skeleton of history, and territorial and dynastic relations necessarily come first after the chronological outline. But Mr. Gardiner's treatise, even for young students, belongs a step higher; and such social facts as we have instanced have too powerful and direct an influence upon political history to be passed over in silence.

Mr. Gardiner's point of view is that of a hearty sympathy with the religious and constitutional reforms of the nation, which is never allowed to degenerate into partisanship. He appears as impartial and as sound in his judgments as Mr. Hallam, while his conclusions, drawn from researches in a narrower field, and therefore in all likelihood more profound, are on the whole more favorable, we should think, to the policy actually followed by the English nation in this great crisis of its history. It is, we confess, very gratifying to find what we have been accustomed to look upon as the right cause receive such hearty support from him; many recent writers, in their efforts at impartiality, have almost seemed to lean over to the side of prerogative and reaction.

We cannot give a better notion of the style of this book and its leading tone of thought than by a few extracts. They will illustrate as well the strength of the author in generalization as his sagacity in commenting upon individual characters and events.

"Richard II. had this special failing, that he stood on neither side of the great controversy of the age. He had not the large-heartedness and the heroism to place himself at the head of the peasants, excepting in one brief moment of excitement, and thus to obtain at least some consideration for their just demands. On the other hand, he had no real sympathy with the ruling classes. Fitful and uncertain in action, he strove, with long intervals of inertness, to maintain or acquire authority over them without regard for the conditions on which alone authority can be wielded" (p. 96).

In speaking of Henry VII.:

"The strength which a government acquires by being armed against anarchy is short-lived. Its very success brings such strength to an end" (p. 103).

Of the time of the first Stuarts:

"The decadence of the courtly literature of the time was the index to the decadence of moral and intellectual strength. The remaining dramatists of the Elizabethan school died, leaving no successors but the sweet and honey-tongued singers of a world of grace and beauty, where earnestness of heart counted for nothing—the Herricks, the Carews, the Sucklings, who could tell of the loveliness of soft glances and warm kisses, but who knew nothing of the fidelity of Imogen or the bright womanliness of Rosalind. Literature, in the person of Milton, passed to the side of the Opposition" (p. 137).

"It is not likely that a government which disregards the ideas of its subjects will pay much regard to their interests" (p. 140).

"The struggle of the Civil War was in the main a struggle between the enfeebled spirit of the Renaissance and the spirit of Protestantism raised to its highest pitch" (p. 147).

"It was on the side of Chatham's ideas rather than on the side of Burke's that the hopes of the future lay, if it were only for this reason: that Burke's principles excluded the popular leadership of Chatham, whilst Chatham's principles would find ample room for the intellectual guidance of Burke" (p. 185).

PALESTINE: EAST AND WEST.

East of the Jordan: a Record of Travel and Observation in the Countries of Moab, Gilead, and Bashan during the Years 1875-77. By Selah Merrill, Archaeologist of the American Palestine Exploration Society. With illustrations and a map. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

The Ride Through Palestine. By the Rev. John W. Dulles, D.D. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication.

FROM Beirut, during 1875-77, Mr. Merrill, as the archaeologist of the American Palestine Exploration Society, made four different expeditions into the interior. Of these, however, the journals of but two are given at length in the present volume, and these are rather an account of the journeys than a record of results achieved. Mr. Merrill's "Topographical Notes on Eastern Palestine," in which he gives, in a concise and scholarly manner, the results of the explorations already made, withheld from publication for the present for reasons which need not be detailed, will appear in due time," writes Dr. Hitchcock in his Introduction. In the present volume there is, therefore, at times a somewhat tantalizing vagueness. Sentences like the following are not uncommon: "It is very difficult of access from any direction, but possesses some large stones, some columns, one arch, and a great supply of cisterns." Again, in one of his reports the author writes: "We have paid special attention to the archaeology, botany, geology, and natural history of the region visited. Every fountain, stream, and ruin, and almost every wady, in the valley and hills immediately east of the Jordan, from the north end of the Sea of Galilee to the Dead Sea, has been visited, and a large amount of material collected" (pp. 311, 312). Many unimportant details might have been omitted, and more of this "material" introduced with advantage into the book, were the question merely one of space.

"Among the Cities of Bashan" is the title of a brief narrative of a journey into the Hauran, in the course of which the author explored the more important of its ruined cities, including Um El Jemal, heretofore practically unknown to European or American travellers. An interesting chapter is added on Hauran Architecture, compiled from the preface of De Vogüé's 'Syrie Centrale,' whose conclusions Mr. Merrill has adopted with some slight modifications. This is followed by a detailed account of a three-months' expedition to the East Jordan Valley, the Gilead region, the Dead Sea and Moab, and an exploration of the Lower Zerka or River Jabbok. A prominent feature of the narrative is the identification of particular Biblical and historical sites, in which tradition is not always followed. The "Cities of the Plain," e.g., Mr. Merrill holds, were neither totally nor partially submerged. Their site he finds at the northeast, not the south end of the Dead Sea, where ancient ruins still remain. Pisgah he regards as a common, not a proper name; and Mt. Nebo he identifies with the modern Jebel Neba at the extreme north end of the mountain range east of the Dead Sea, which stretches southward from Wady Hasban. It is Geraah, not Es Salt, as many have supposed, that fully answers the description of Ramoth Gilead, and at Khan Minieh, or 'Ain et Tin, not Tel Hüm, are the ruins of Capernaum.

If the effect of the present volume, however, be to raise the expectations, rather than to satisfy the curiosity, of archaeologists, as a book of travels it takes high rank. Mr. Merrill's sketches of the land, the scenery, and the people east of the Jordan are fresh, vigorous, and full of life, and in this respect his book is never dull. He is

constantly impressed with the natural fertility of the soil and its latent possibilities. "The American farmer," he writes, "would look with envious eyes upon any of the fertile portions of this valley, and one has but to see them to account for the interest which Lot felt in the rich plains far to the south" (p. 139). Of the plain of Bashan he adds: "The natural wealth of the soil here is a constant surprise to me. I have seen men on this plain turning furrows which were nearly one mile in length, and as straight as one could draw a line" (p. 333). The milk and the honey, however, were not visible; for here, too, he tells of the blighting curse of Turkish tyranny which is desolating some of the fairest portions of the earth. "A civilized man," he writes in righteous indignation, "cannot help blushing whenever he applies the word government to the barbarous system of robbery and oppression under which the people of the Turkish Empire drag out a miserable existence in poverty and wretchedness" (p. 358); and he adds (p. 417): "My real wonder is that the poor, oppressed, miserable inhabitants of this land, both those of the towns and those of the desert, do not rise and massacre every official that rules in the name of the Turkish Government." Even the slave-trade exists in all its hideous deformity, notwithstanding the specious assurances of the Turkish Government and officials to the contrary.

"As nearly as I can ascertain," says Mr. Merrill, "as many as fifty or sixty, and sometimes eighty slaves—an estimate which is probably too low—chiefly boys and girls, are brought back to Damascus every year by the returning Mecca pilgrims and merchants. For these a ready sale is found. I have a friend in Beirut, and one of his customers residing in Damascus makes the pilgrimage to Mecca every year, and brings back regularly a lot of slaves. In the year 1876 he brought twenty, all females. He was very frank to admit that it was quite common for the Moslems to exchange the merchandise which they took with them for slaves, because in that way they could realize two or three times the value of their goods" (p. 342).

Mr. Merrill was fortunate in entering into friendly relations with the Bedawin. He passed from tribe to tribe unmolested, and thus enjoyed exceptional advantages for studying their institutions and modes of life. His three chapters on "Arab Life in the Desert" are therefore not the least valuable portion of his book. In brief compass he gives some vivid pictures of Arab life, and trustworthy information on many points of interest. Here, *e.g.*, is a graphic sketch of a tribe upon the march:

"The procession or caravan was strung along over three or four miles. They had camels and cattle, and several flocks of sheep and goats. The camels, however, were few, showing that they did not belong to the interior of the desert. All the camels and some of the other animals were loaded. The goods, consisting of tents, cooking apparatus, bags, rugs, mats, baskets, and even cradles, had been hustled together into bundles, tied with strings and ropes, and loaded promiscuously on their beasts of burden. Men, women, children, and babies made each their proportionate element in the procession. There were the 'first families,' and others which, by their dress, or rather by their nakedness and rags, looked as though they might be the 'last families.' The flocks of sheep and goats were mostly driven by small children. Sometimes there were flocks of lambs and kids driven by children not much older, relatively, than the lambs and kids themselves. Some of the men had in their arms two, three, four, or a whole armful of kids and lambs that were too young to walk; and among some cooking utensils there was a large saucepan, and in it was a pair of small kids that were too young for the journey. On the back of a donkey was a bed of blankets, and on that a sleeping child had been tied, whose bare legs hung down the donkey's side. At one point of the procession some women had stopped and were trying to rearrange a load which had fallen off from their donkey. There were small bundles in the path, and one large one by the

side of it; my horse picked his way through the small ones, but shied around the large one, for just as he approached it gave a squeak which startled him. I thought it was a box filled with kids too young to walk, but it proved to be an orthodox cradle, which no doubt had been stolen from somewhere, covered with a blue cloth for a curtain, and in it were a pair of lively babies. Many of the women were bareheaded, it being too warm, probably, to wear the blue rag which is the universal headdress; and of their toilets otherwise the less said the better" (p. 473).

Arab children he found always interesting. In reply to a question as to his ideas of life,

"One little fellow said that he was going to save up his money and buy a few goats, and after that he should keep on saving his money, and buy two or three cows.

"What will you do then?" I said.

"Well, I would sell the goats and the cows, and buy two or three camels."

"At that his face brightened, as if to own some camels would make a man of him.

"And after you get your camels what will you do?"

"Why, then," said he thoughtfully, "I shall get married."

"And after that what will you do?"

"Well, I suppose," said he, after a little pause, "after that I must get ready to die" (p. 502).

We permit ourselves one further extract:

"The lot of an Arab woman is a hard one. As a girl she is valued for the price she will bring when she shall be sought in marriage; as a woman she is regarded as a menial, and her life is wretched; if she arrives at old age—and forty or fifty years is considered an advanced age—she becomes wrinkled and haggard, without a single comely or redeeming feature, one of the most disgusting objects that mortal eyes ever looked upon bearing the name of woman" (pp. 506-7).

Mr. Merrill writes in an attractive style, and his descriptions of scenery are especially good. His book is beautifully illustrated throughout, largely from drawings made by himself.

Little can be said of Dr. Dulles's "Ride Through Palestine," which deals with the country westward of the Jordan. It is difficult to see what special ground there was for another addition to the number, large enough already, of commonplace books all going over the same ground and repeating the same story. The route here described has been described a hundred times before, and there is nothing in the experience of the travellers to impart life and interest to the narrative.

NUMA ROUMESTAN.

Numa Roumestan: Mœurs Parisiennes. Par Alphonse Daudet. Paris: G. Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

For English and American readers the last novel of Alphonse Daudet can hardly be said to possess the interest of his former stories. It has, like the "Nabab," a political character, but this is so entirely local that to say of the ordinary foreigner that he knows nothing of it, is to understate the case. It is so wholly out of his range that he has not even misconceptions or prejudices about it. The phrase of Numa Roumestan's which appears on the title-page, and furnishes the key to the political part of the tale—"Pour la seconde fois les Latins ont conquis la Gaule"—cannot convey much meaning to any but Frenchmen, and the moral of the story is worked out in such an extraordinary way that it can hardly have much profound significance for them. A few years ago the case might have been different. Numa Roumestan is a native of Provence, and represents the south of France—the south in which traces of the old Roman language and blood still linger, although they seem, if we are to take M. Daudet's word for it, to produce effects strangely un-Roman. It would be difficult to make out in the Provençal as he appears in the

pages of this novel—hot-blooded, impulsive, irrational, rhetorical, superficial, and false—any of the traits which we are accustomed to associate with the Roman conquest of Gaul, and hardly less difficult is it to understand why, in contrast with this type, there is offered to us, as a representative of the cold, reflective, and moral north, a Parisian wife. The character of Rosalie de Quesnoy, admirably as it is drawn, is one which *a priori* we should say represented a latitude a good deal to the north of Paris; and it is certainly a novelty in a French description of Parisian manners to find our old Anglo-Saxon superstition on the subject of Parisian conjugal infidelity rudely shattered by so good an authority with regard to Parisian life as M. Daudet. The political moral of the book, however, is quite clear: it is the south against the north—the Roman against the Gaul—ending in a second conquest.

The story opens with a great fête in the old Roman amphitheatre at Aps, the birthplace of the hero, Numa the deputy, Numa the leader of the Right, the faithful follower of Henry V. and the white flag, now for ten years the bulwark of religion and country against the onslaughts of socialists and atheists—the great orator and statesman, Numa Roumestan. He is the centre of the fête—almost the fête itself. He has come down from Paris with his wife and her sister, Hortense. With a few wonderfully clever strokes, the author makes the character of the man and his position, his relation to his wife and her relation to him, all clear. Numa is a man of the people, known and beloved by everybody, high and low; and on this great day he has a kind word, a grasp of the hand, or a slap of the shoulder for everybody who can get near him. To be sure, the interview does not last very long; the great man hears with one ear, and while talking to the first-comer gives his hand to the second. But with such a crowd, and such kind words, who could ask any more? The requests of the honest constituents are generally for tobacco privileges, and if he notices that any one is keeping back, he encourages him to ask. There is nothing that he enjoys better than the pleasure of promising. His words, distinct and clear, come from his lips like pieces of money newly coined, and every friend and acquaintance goes off with a few of them as happy as a schoolboy with a prize. But the most delightful thing of all is to see how the great man falls into the tone, gesture, and manner of the person to whom he is speaking, and all in the most natural and unconscious way in the world. See him with M. le Président Bédarride, his arm magisterially extended, "comme s'il s'écoûait sa toga à la barre"; then look at his martial air as he talks to Colonel de Rochemaure; and after that notice him with Cabantous, his hands in his pockets, his rolling gait, and general air of an old tar. His sister-in-law asks him, with a laugh, where in the world he is going to find all the tobacco-shops he has promised; to which the statesman philosophically replies, "They are promised, my dear sister, not given"; and then, noticing the reproach conveyed in the silence of his wife, he goes on:

"Do not forget that we are in the south, among compatriots of the same tongue. All these brave fellows know what a promise is worth, and do not hope for their tobacco-shop with any greater definiteness than I count on getting it for them. But they like to talk about it; it amuses them and fires their imagination. Why deprive them of this pleasure? Among southerners words never have more than a relative meaning."

His wife, however, is not convinced—

"Nevertheless, words signify something, after all," she says, as if speaking to herself.

"My dear," replies her husband, "that depends on the latitude."

There are one or two of his constituents who agree with his wife as to the meaning of words, both of them destined to give them a great deal of trouble in the sequel, one of them the old Cabantous, the other Valmajour, a Provençal tambourine and flute-player, whose music makes such an impression upon Roumestan that he brings him and all his family to Paris, where they are destined to be the cause of much misery to themselves and others. Those who are curious about matters of literary workmanship will be interested in noticing in the thread of the Valmajour story the characteristic use which the author makes of his musician's account of the flute with three stops. In all his stories there has been something to remind us in a puzzling sort of way of Dickens, and there is nothing more characteristic of Dickens than his melodramatic use of pathetic "points," by the sudden reintroduction of a phrase or expression which he has already associated in our minds with pleasant ideas, at some pathetic crisis, where it has the effect of heightening the pathos by the contrast of emotion. It is of course a device which was not invented by Dickens; it is probably as old as literary art itself. It is very common on the stage in melodrama and the "emotional" drama; and that it may be used with success in music, Gounod, to say nothing of other composers, has demonstrated very effectively in the well-known waltz air in "Faust." But it is, after all, a trick—a purely mechanical way of producing a literary effect—which, when it is once explained, any one can learn and perform. We associate it generally with some of Dickens's books, because he was a master of it; and in French fiction there is no one who employs it with anything like the gusto and frequency that M. Daudet displays. In the case of Valmajour, the interest of the character is not sufficient to warrant much pathos. He is at bottom a stupid lout, without either heart or mind. Our sympathies are entirely enlisted on the side of Hortense, whose romance about him is destined to be shattered to fragments. With wonderful cleverness, therefore, M. Daudet refrains from any attempt to make Valmajour himself pathetic, but at the same time makes an effective point of his parrot-like repetition of the story of the flute. He tells it whenever his playing comes to an end; and that it contains an idea pretty enough for a "point" no one will dispute. "It came to me," he explains in his native patois at the moment of his triumph in the Roman amphitheatre, "in the night, while I was listening to the song of the nightingale. I thought to myself, How then, Valmajour! There is the bird of God above, and his throat is enough for him to make all his *routades* with. What he does with one stop, you cannot do with your flute and three." And when, at the skating-rink in Paris, the unfortunate Hortense, her romance about him quite dispelled, herself doomed to an early death, is dragged by his sister to witness his final and complete failure, when his flute and tambourine have fallen flat, and his audience have let him know their feelings about his music only too plainly, again we see his lips move, and hear for the last time (this is the third occasion on which this little piece of "business" is made use of): "It came to me . . . one stop . . . three stops . . . the bird of God above." His gesture of despair is understood by the orchestra. "And this was Hortense's romance: This was what Paris had made of it."

The first scene at Aps prepares us for the next two chapters, which give an account of the previous life of Numa: his study of law; his career in the Latin Quarter; his determination never to go back to Provence, but to seek his fortune in Paris; his apprenticeship to a distinguished Parisian lawyer; the revelation of his

natural gift for oratory; his marriage, and the discovery of his true character by his wife. These two chapters make a complete story by themselves, and the only fault to be found with the rest of the book is that, so far as he and she are concerned, it is very like a repetition of them, modified by the introduction of some new characters. This furnishes the occasion for the sad story of Hortense, and her untimely death, and for an entertaining account of the political life of the great man in Paris, and of the many troubles into which his amiable but superficial and false character gets him. But we foresee from the first that his wife's pardon of his first infidelity is not going to change him; indeed, nothing can effect a radical change in him, for no deep or lasting impression can be made upon his character, and the appearance of the little Bachelery on the scene indicates what the end must be. He is clearly destined to repeat his offence, and there was hardly any other way to finish the story than to bring about a second condonation scene over the death-bed of Hortense. The conclusion is, however, necessarily tame, and in the hands of any one but M. Daudet would have been flat. In fact, no more conclusive proof of his great cleverness could have been given than his managing to keep up the interest of such a plot to the end. If it could have had a tragic termination; if the character of Numa had brought him, as by a natural process it might have been made to do, to his ruin, it might have been a great novel. The analysis of his mobile and inconstant disposition is wonderful; but we resent instinctively the disproportion between the analysis and the *dénouement*. The second conquest of France by the Romans does not explain itself, and the sum and substance of the story as a whole is perhaps best put in the words of the Provençal proverb with which the melancholy chapter of Rosalie's domestic unhappiness closes: "Gau de carriero, doulou d'oustau—Joie de rue, douleur de maison."

Nordens Forhistorie. Efter samtidige Mindesmerker af I. I. A. Worsaae. Copenhagen. 1881. 200 pp., with a map.

MR. WORSAAE is the acknowledged chief among Scandinavian archaeologists. As early as 1854 he showed that the iron age must be divided into two (later into three) epochs, and in 1859 he published a work in which he distinguished between an elder and a younger bronze age. He has also discriminated between an elder and younger stone age, making the kitchen-middens belong to the former, and the cairns and cairn sepulchres to the latter, although this division of the stone age into two epochs has been zealously contested by Mr. Steenstrup. Mr. Worsaae has the honor of having successfully combatted Forchhammer's and Finn Magnussen's notion that Runamo contained a runic inscription. Runamo is a rocky wall in Bleking covered with lines and figures, which by Forchhammer and Magnussen were held to be runes, and interpreted as a prayer by Harold Hildetand to the gods for victory in the battle on Bravalla Heath, and a curse upon his enemies, but which Worsaae showed to be a mere freak of nature.

In the present work Mr. Worsaae gives first a general statement in regard to the present status of archaeological studies in other countries, and then proceeds to discuss in some very interesting chapters the various prehistoric ages of Scandinavia. The elder stone age is put by Worsaae at 3,000 years B.C., at least, while the younger stone age is made to embrace the epoch from 2,000 to 1,000 B.C. The elder bronze age begins at about the year 1,000 and ends about 500 B.C. It is followed by the younger bronze age from 500 B.C. to the Christian era. Then come the elder iron

age (from the birth of Christ to 450 after Christ), the middle iron age (from 450 to 700), and the younger iron age (from 700 to 1,000). For all of these epochs the various finds, with their uses and significance, are fully set forth.

The most striking part of the work is Mr. Worsaae's interpretation of the inscriptions and figures on the two famous gold horns found near Gallehus in 1639 and 1734, and never before satisfactorily explained, although many celebrated archaeologists have made elaborate attempts. The actual money value of the two horns was 1,870 ducats. It is acknowledged on all hands that they belong to the middle iron age—that is to say, to the epoch beginning 450 and ending 700 after Christ. George Stephens places them at about A.D. 400. The author had ascertained that many of the finds from the bronze ages were connected with religious customs, and in his studies of the gold bracteates,* from the elder and middle iron ages, he found a number of images representing Odin, Thor, Frey, Sigurd, the Volsung, and other gods and heroes described in ancient literature. Then came the discussion concerning the age of the Edda-lays and of the most important Teutonic myths. Bugge and Bang in Norway contended that they were brought to the North in the eighth and ninth centuries. They insisted that the Balder myth especially, which forms the kernel of the *asa-faith*, and the representations of the Midgard-serpent and Ragnarok, were an importation of Christian legends, while other myths were of classic origin brought to the North during the Viking expeditions, notably from England, Scotland, and Ireland. Odin himself was no older. These views contained a serious attack on the old Norse literature and on the whole preceding estimate of Teutonic antiquities. It is true these ideas were intrinsically not at all probable, for the Viking age was an age of decline and disintegration in religious respects. There was not enough of faith left in the North to accept and embrace new and important myths. It therefore seemed proper to examine this subject from an archaeological standpoint. There were a multitude of pictures on the two famous gold horns from the middle iron age, on the bracteates, and on runic stones as well as on other finds, and it was discreditable to the archaeologists that they made no attempt to explain them.

The suggestion came from France. On a visit to the Museum in St. Germain, Mr. Worsaae saw a department in which Gallic idols from every part of France were arranged. He saw there gods both in sitting and standing postures—a mixture of Roman and Gallic divinities—and among these not less than fifteen three-headed idols, a part of which had their legs crossed in genuine Buddha fashion. This led him to make a new and careful study of the gold horns from Gallehus. Suddenly it flashed upon his mind that the one must have reference to the serpent-filled abode of Hel (the Goddess of Death), and the other to the star-lit Valhal. Here the key was found. He then took the figures separately and compared them with the representations on the gold bracteates, and soon found that the whole *Odinic religion* was pictured on the gold horns, with Valhal and Hel and the myth of Balder as the basis. In successive rings on the horns nearly all the myths found in the Eddas are represented by pictures showing conclusively that all the elements and details of the *asa-faith*

* Bracteates (from the Latin *bractea*) are a kind of coin of thin, hammered-out silver (sometimes gold), once very common throughout northern Europe in prehistoric times. They were frequently used as ornaments. The oldest were engraved on both sides, but the later ones were hammered out so thin that they could be engraved on one side only. They are found in great numbers in Germany and Scandinavia, but Denmark is the only country in which gold bracteates have been found. The word has not yet found its way into our English dictionaries.

existed in the North long before the Viking age. The horns might be compared to a fully-illustrated Bible, and were probably kept in a temple to tell the story of the old religion. They are a unique relic of the past, of inestimable value, not only to the North, but also to all the other Germanic countries. Comparison with the bracteates and other relics shows beyond a doubt that the horns belong to the sixth century.

Mr. Worsaae has thus demonstrated in the most satisfactory manner that the basis of Norse mythology is not, as maintained by Bugge and Bang, a recent importation from the British Isles, but dates back to an early period, and is connected with religious ideas that have been common to all Teutons. He has demonstrated that finds in the archaeological collections establish the antiquity of the Edda myths, and the trustworthiness of the Old Norse literature in this respect. His book marks a new era in the study of Teutonic antiquities. Many of the old views and theories, and many old interpretations, will have to be set aside. But archaeologists and scientists may take comfort from one of the pictures found on the Gallehus gold horns. The heroes in Valhal ride out into the court every day, and there fight until they fall; but the next day they rise again, remount their steeds, and return to Valhal, where they drink mead with Odin from golden horns.

Madame de Sévigné. By Miss Thackeray (Mrs. Richmond Ritchie). [Foreign Classics for English Readers.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 16mo, pp. 181.

MISS THACKERAY is a genial and appreciative biographer of Madame de Sévigné, and has made a very charming book—an entertaining life of her heroine, enlivened with copious extracts from her letters, and all together forming a graphic and interesting picture of the times. The introductory chapter contains an admirable passage descriptive of the personality of Madame de Sévigné and her relation to the world about her:

"Madame de Sévigné's voice rings very true and sweet and playful amidst the hideous discords of her time, and her apparition is indeed a gracious vision among the reckless phantoms of her age—those subjects of that Grand Monarch whose god was his belly, and whose good breeding was the admiration of Europe. While his people are starving, and his mistresses stringing diamonds; while his unwilling armies are invading inoffensive nations, and his courtiers are conniving at every mad wickedness—Saint Simon dwells, in an ecstasy of contemplation, upon the extraordinary grace, the irresistible admixture of dignity and respect, with which the King would half rise from his seat at table to salute the tardy entrance of some belated dame of honor, at the same time storing in his memory a record of the lady's fallibility, to be resented at the first convenient opportunity. Madame de Sévigné, in her youth, was no less enthusiastic about him than the rest, but as years went by her judgment became more just. Hers was a curious morality: she laughed where others might have wept; she seemed to take the times as she found them; she attempted no reform, though she could see wrong plainly enough where it existed. It was a sweet and happy temper, a mind that played lightly even with sorrows and wrong-doing; and yet this bright and apparently unconcerned existence was a protest in its way against the insincerity and abject selfishness of the court. She at least did her best to make those about her happy. . . . In a court where lies and intrigue were as daily bread; where modesty was rare, and every standard of right and wrong overthrown by the brilliant and witty and well-dressed vices crowding in—this beautiful young woman, surrounded by flattery of every sort, by high living and low thinking, kept her dignity intact, her name pure and respected. She did not profess any special virtue, nor hold her garments back lest they should be soiled by contact with the petticoats of her more frivolous sisters. She was (to earnest minds perhaps) far too lenient in her tolerance for others, and especially where

those she loved were concerned; but the whole tenor of her life was just and self-respecting."

Armstrong's Primer of United States History, for School and Family Use. With maps. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1881. Pp. 128.

WE are inclined to doubt whether the next generation will think as highly of the "primer system" as the present, and if the system does survive the present fashion, we think it will be (as with the lecture system) in so far as it aims not to instruct, but to inspire and suggest. The attempt to crowd the history of any nation into the compass of a hundred pages or so must result either in a very incomplete statement or a mere catalogue of names and events; but a hundred pages of what is most essential in facts and commentary, the secondary facts and every proper name that is possible being omitted, may be very useful. Some of the primers of history are models in this respect, especially for the purpose of review. The book before us is not uniform in method. In some parts—for instance, the story of Columbus, and Burgoyne's invasion—we have an account very complete and good for the space devoted to it; while other parts, especially towards the end, are meagre, confused, and crowded with unimportant names and dates. It seems as if the author began on a larger scale than his space would warrant, and was compelled to crowd some of the closing chapters with more facts than they would well hold. The Colonial period is perhaps too brief, but rather from omission than compression. The arrangement here is not always good. On what principle are New York, New Jersey, and Delaware grouped together (chap. vi, part 1), and Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Georgia (chap. v, part 2)? The maps are, we think, the best we have ever seen in a school history of the United States, but they are not numbered. In the map of the acquisition of territory (p. 64) we think it is clearly incorrect to include Oregon in the Louisiana purchase. In the map of the Colonies (p. 16) the three divisions into which Maine fell historically ought to be indicated. On page 80 the Dorset rebellion (1842) is said to have arisen out of a "quarrel over a new charter!"

A Short History of Art. By Julia B. De Forest. Illustrated. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1881.

ONE of the results of the new and wide-spread interest in art, and art education, which has arisen within the past few years in America, is the production of popular treatises on the subject. It is natural that these treatises should generally correspond in character with the new interest itself, which, though it contains some hopeful elements, is yet hardly of the character that we ought to desire. We are going on much too fast in these matters. Our work is not yet modest, patient, and thorough enough to serve as a sound foundation for real progress. Everywhere, in the popular arts of the time, we see the signs of undue haste, of undisciplined feeling, and of effort to produce what shall be showy rather than excellent. And all this is reflected perfectly in the art literature which springs up along with it. There are exceptions; but they are not too frequent to prove the rule.

The work before us purports to be a brief outline of the general history of the arts in all ages and countries. Brief outlines of great subjects may be very useful, no doubt, if they are made by thoroughly competent persons, who not only know their subjects perfectly, but possess also the faculty of seizing significant points, and of presenting them in true and vivid order. Such outlines enable a beginner to lay hold of a sub-

ject as he otherwise could not, and give him an interest in following it up by more particular and more extended study. But unless an outline of a subject is full enough and accurate enough to convey real and significant information in every part, it has little if any value. It is a fault of this book that it is in many parts too brief to be intelligible, and is frequently inaccurate in its statements. For instance, the subject of sculpture in Italy, from 1200 to 1400—one of the most important in the whole range of art history—has a little less than two pages assigned to it. So great a man as Andrea Orcagna is disposed of in two lines as follows: "Andrea Orcagna (1320-1368) also deserves mention. He was a man of universal genius, painter, sculptor, and architect." And not only is the treatment of important subjects frequently thus so very brief as to be of hardly any use at all, but the authoress often so misconceives the spirit and character of the art she is speaking of as to be very misleading. An instance of this occurs in the closing paragraph of this same chapter. She says:

"Medieval traditions were followed in Venice longer than in other parts of Italy; but the whole country, as if it recognized an old friend in the revived classic spirit, shook itself free from the trammels of northern art in a very brief space of time. The next step was to conquer those countries which, for a little, had imposed their artistic canons upon the heirs of the treasures of Greece and Rome."

Herein the failure to recognize those most living and salutary elements of northern art which animated what remained, or was revived, of classic tradition in Italy, and gave controlling impulse to the arts of the Early and Central Renaissance, leaves the impression on the mind of the reader that there was nothing in northern art which could not be spared and was not better out of the way. It would be hard to imagine a graver misconception of the character of northern art, or a more untrue notion of the Early and Central Renaissance art of Italy than is conveyed by the implication that it was merely a revival of the antique. The book embraces an account of Primitive art, Egyptian art, Chaldean art, Persian art, the arts of Syria and Asia Minor, Greek art, Etruscan art, Roman art, Christian art, the arts of the Renaissance, Pagan art in the Christian Era, and art in the nineteenth century. It is profusely illustrated by woodcuts, but the illustrations are all of an extremely coarse character.

The Story of the English Jacobins. By Edward Smith, F.S.S., author of 'William Cobbett: a Biography,' etc. [Cassell's Popular Library.] New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 32mo, pp. 184.

THERE is no more interesting episode in English history than the last effort made by Prerogative to crush the spirit of free institutions in the Treason Trials of 1794; and there is no more inspiring eloquence in the noble volume of British oratory than those speeches in which Erskine successfully defended popular rights against the assaults of the Government. The story of these events is told in an interesting manner in Mr. Smith's little volume, which will well repay the reading.

While our sympathies are heartily with the heroes of the book, and we regard the acquittal of Hardy and Tooke as no unimportant step in the progress of English liberty, we cannot help seeing that there were many features of the popular movement which justified a certain degree of alarm. The actions of the "conspirators" appear to have been wholly free from reproach, and it is well shown (p. 65) that all the disorders of the time were the work of the partisans of "law and order." But the reformers

were not as careful to avoid every appearance of countenancing the excesses of the French Revolution as, in the light of history, we should have expected them to be. It must have appeared to the average Englishman an ominous reminder of Louis Philippe Egalité when "Citizen" Stanhope's health is drunk 'with thundering applause'" (p. 115). No doubt the horrors of the Reign of Terror made less impression in the excitement of the time; probably, too, they really occupied a smaller proportionate space in men's minds than they do now, with the glare of ninety years thrown upon them. For all that, it seems incredible that calm English reformers should send gratulatory commissions to France in the midst of those events; just as the Genet episode in our own history is hard to realize at the present day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. D. *The Eastern Archipelago*. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. \$2.
Hallantyne, R. M. *The Giant of the North; or, Pokings Round the Pole*. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. \$1.50.

A SUMPTUOUS GIFT-BOOK. Greece and Rome THEIR LIFE AND ART.

By Jacob von Falcke, Director of the Imperial Museums, Berlin. Translated by William Hand Browne. 4to, \$15.

Young Folks' History OF THE War for the Union.

By John D. Champlin, Jr., Editor of the "Young Folks' Cyclopaedia." 8vo, copiously illustrated, \$2.75.

Mythology & Folklore.

An Introduction to the Science of Comparative Mythology and Folklore. By the Rev. Sir George W. Cox, Bart. 12mo, \$1.75.

Our Familiar Songs, AND THOSE WHO MADE THEM.

Edited by Helen Kendrick Johnson. 8vo, \$6.

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Brockhaus's *Conversations-Lexikon*, Parts 1, 2. 13th ed. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Cassell's *Book of In-door Amusements*. New York: Cassell & Co. \$1.50.
Clement, Mrs. C. E. *Eleanor Maitland: a Tale*. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Corbett, Mrs. C. T. *Three Wise Old Couples*. New York: Cassell & Co. \$1.50.
Dahlgren, Mrs. M. V. *South Sea Sketches*. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$1.50.
Daulet, A. *Nama Roumestan*. 32d thousand. New York: F. W. Christern.
Dickens, C. *Letters*. Vol. III. 1830-1870. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.
Doehn, Dr. R. *Beiträge zur Geschichte der Nordamerikanischen Union*. New York: R. Westermann & Co.
Drake, S. A. *Around the Hub: a Boys' Book about Boston*. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$2.
Ebers, Prof. G. *Cartha: a Romance of Ancient Egypt*. 2 vols. New ed. New York: W. S. Gottsberger.
Edwards, Dr. J. F. *Malaria: What it Means, and How Avoided*. Philadelphia: Presley Blakiston. 75 cents.
Engle, Alice B. *Story of Four Acorns*. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. \$1.
Falke, J. von. *Greece and Rome*. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$15.
Garrett, E. *Family Fortunes*. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. \$1.75.
Gibbon, C. *The Braces of Yarrow: a Tale*. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Guiding Pillar: *a Child's Story*. London: T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Haile, Ellen. *Hazel Nut and her Brothers*. New York: Cassell & Co. \$1.25.
Holland, J. G. *Gold-Foll*. New ed. \$1.25.—Titcomb's *Letters to Young People*. 50th ed. \$1.25.—Bitter-Sweet: *a Poem*. New ed. \$1.25. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

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